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ALL THE WESTERN STATES AND TERRITORIES,

FROM THE ALLEGHANIES TO THE PACIFIC,

AND

FROM THE LAKES TO THE GULF,

CONTAINING

Their History from the Earliest Times, with Local History, Incidents of Pioneer Life, Military Events, Biographical Sketches; combined with full Geographical Descriptions of the different States, Territories, Cities, and Towns; the whole being illustrated by

. 240 ENGRAVINGS,

presenting views of the Cities and Principal Towns, Public Buildings and Monuments, Battle Fields, Historic Localities, Natural Curiosities, etc., principally from drawings taken on the spot by the Authors.

BY

JOHN W. BARBER,

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AND

HENRY HOWE,

AUTHOR OF HIST. COL'S OF VIRGINIA, OHIO, THE GREAT WEST, &c.

CINCINNATI, O.

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sing; on the N. by the British Possessions; on the W. by Dakota Territory, and on the S. by Iowa: its greatest length north and south is 350 miles, and it has a breadth varying from 183 to 358 miles: total area 81,259 square miles.

Minnesota occupies the elevated plateau of North America. At the "highth of land," or *Hauteurs des Terres*, in the northern part of the state, lat. 47 deg. 7 min. and long. 95 deg., "are the sources of the three great river systems of the continent. The slopes of the adjacent valleys, meeting upon this central ridge, give to the surface of Minnesota, with the general aspect of an undulating plain, the shape of a pyramidal roof, down whose opposite sides the waters descend to their ocean outlets." Two thirds of this surface feeds the Mississippi with its waters, which thus find their way to the Gulf of Mexico, while the remainder of the surface contributes in about equal proportions to the Red River of the North, flowing into Hudson's Bay, and to Lake Superior, whose final outlet to the ocean is through the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The Highth of Land is about 1,500 feet above the Gulf of Mexico, and is the only hilly region, excepting the trap summits north of Lake Superior.

The majestic Mississippi takes its rise among the hills of Lake Itasca, and flows for 797 miles through the state. The Minnesota, 470 miles long, empties into the Mississippi five miles above St. Paul, and is now navigable for steamers for 238 miles, to the mouth of the Yellow Medicine. The Red River has a length of 379 miles, to the British line. The St. Croix River, so valuable for its pineries, is navigable for 52 miles. Lake Superior washes 167 miles of the border of the state, and the St. Louis River, at its extreme west end, is navigable 21 miles.

Hon. B. B. Meeker, a ten years' resident in Minnesota, writing in 1860, gives a description of its climate, soil and general resources, which we copy in an abridged form;

The climate of Minnesota is already proverbially good. Its complete exemption from all those diseases and maladies local to most new countries, and so justly a terror to all new comers, is conceded by all who have tested it by actual residence. There is hardly a town, or city, or neighborhood in the state, that is not able to bear testimony to more than one complete restoration from chronic disease of the lungs or some of the varied types of consumption assumed by that most subtle of all the agents of the fell destroyer.

Perhaps no locality on our continent has less of fever and ague. Indeed, if there be any cases of this kind, their origin is readily traced to some other states or territories, and but a short residence is necessary to eradicate it entirely. Hundreds and hundreds of families are annually driven from other western states to take up their residence in Minnesota, to escape this offensive and troublesome foe to the emigrant and his family. This is not only true of one, but of every portion of the state; and what is very remarkable, it is just as healthy around the lake shores and along the valleys of our water courses, as upon the prairies and table lands of the interior. In no part of America are the seasons better defined or more emphatically marked.

We will commence with the spring. This season usually begins about the middle of March, when the snow begins to melt and disappear suddenly. April is fickle and fluctuating—May tranquil, warm, and genial. The latter part of April the farmers plant potatoes and sow their spring wheat. About the first of May they sow their oats, and about the tenth plant their corn. After the first of May frosts rarely ever appear, certainly not to the same extent they do in states further south and east. This is a very remarkable fact, and is demonstrated yearly. I was informed by an aged missionary, in the spring of 1849, that he had lived in the country then sixteen years, and that he had observed the appearance of frost averaged two weeks earlier in northern Illinois than in Minnesota. Why this difference in favor of a more northern state, is an interesting problem for philosophers and geologists, with whom I leave the solution—the fact, however, is incontestable.

Summer in this state is indeed hot, sometimes even overpowering; but always succeeded by cool, breezy, delicious nights. Sleep here is repose indeed, and not exhaustion, as in more southern states. In no part of the world do crops grow more rapidly than in Minnesota, owing chiefly to two causes, the intense heat of summer days and the warm nature of the soil. This peculiarity of the soil and climate explains the hurried and swift maturity of the various species of corn, that many who have not witnessed the fact, believe can not ripen with any degree of certainty north of Ohio or Illinois. This quick action of the sun and soil on vegetation and grain, is necessarily a spur to the farmer, who is hurried from one department of his labor to another without much time for rest or relaxation. At first he will be apt to conclude that the planting of corn is too close on the sowing of wheat, oats, and barley; and the weeding of the former too near the harvesting of the latter. But

he will soon learn by observation and experience to keep them separate and apart by taking time by the forelock.

The autumns of Minnesota are bright, clear, and dry—well adapted to the cutting and curing of hay, and the in-gathering of the crops. It is also the best season for sport, as hunting, fishing, and driving. No state in the Union has better natural roads and thoroughfares, and at this season you can safely drive a carriage to the Red River—thence down that rich valley of land to the British interior—or westward to the Rocky Mountains, or southerly to Iowa or Missouri. A good team road you can find at this season in almost any direction, and perfect health by the way.

The winter here is cold, dry, and severe. Snow falls for sleighing generally about the twentieth of November, and from that time to Christmas. After that but little snow falls, and it is uniform winter till spring comes, when it makes its exit rather unceremoniously. But let no one suppose that winter here is cheerless and void of social interest. In no part of the country are there more social appliances and social pleasures than in Minnesota. Lyceums, lecture-rooms, social and dancing parties, sleighing excursions by day and by moonlight, are common sources of pleasure from the capitol to the country hamlet. This, too, is the season for harvesting the pine forest—an employment half business and half pleasure—a crop gathered in the winter and manufactured and sold in the spring and summer.

Minnesota, like all the other states, has more or less of poor or indifferent soil; at the same time few states in the Union have more productive or remunerating lands than Minnesota, and these are admirably distributed so as ultimately to equalize the population through the several important districts marked by the physical geography of the country. The great natural subdivisions of the state are:

I. The Lake Superior region or the region extending some sixty miles around the head of the great lake that bears that name. This district is for the most part woodland. Most of the soil is thin, low, and wet, with here and there a fertile locality of hard wood, as ash, sugar maple, and elm, having a clay or hard-pan subsoil. But little of this region is at present settled, and it is generally unknown to the emigrating public, as no road has yet been completed—from Superior City to the Mississippi—a distance of eighty miles only. It is to be regretted, and the government is to be blamed, that it has never constructed this road either for military or postal purposes, as well as for calling into requisition and settlement a large tract of the public domain, thus uniting, by a comparatively small expense, the two great valleys of the continent, the Lake and Mississippi. It would be essentially a national highway, and would speedily force into settlement all the cultivable lands between the two mighty waters. This, too, is the mineral, the copper and iron district of Minnesota—the only region in America where copper is found in massive purity. When the slumbering wealth of this region shall be appreciated, and capital and operatives shall have found a lodgment in this portion of Minnesota, agriculture in this vicinity will find an inexhaustible market and a rich reward at the head of the lake.

II. In the north-west of the state, heads the great valley or basin of the Red River of the North. This is almost a distinct region of country, and has many peculiarities in soil and population. The valley proper, is about thirty miles in width, being timbered and prairie and of the very richest soil, composed of a deep black loam, resting upon a clayey foundation. This is a vast luxuriant grass region—the ancient paradise of the buffalo herds—from which they have just been driven by the vanguard and outpost of our progressive population. This great valley is admirably adapted to the cultivation of hemp, barley, maize, wheat, oats, and potatoes.

III. The Upper Mississippi. By this I mean so much of the valley of the Upper Mississippi as lies north of the Falls of St. Anthony. On the east side or left hand of this river, from its source to the falls, the soil is generally inferior, and yet there are many portions of it are good and yield well. On the west side, however, the soil is not only good but generally excellent. The Sauk River valley, the Crow River valley and its branches, are not surpassed in fertility and productiveness in any western state. This region is not only well settled but populous, and is very productive in wheat, rye, oats, corn, and potatoes, which are shipped in large quantities from the falls to St. Louis, the most accessible and best market.

IV. The St. Peter's or Minnesota valley. This is an immense district of agricultural and grazing lands, stretching south-westerly first, and then north-westerly, embracing a tract of some five hundred miles, fertile in corn, wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes, all of which are easily and cheaply floated to the Mississippi, thence south to the best market.

V. Lower Minnesota, or all that country lying west of the Mississippi and south of the St. Peter's or Minnesota River, including the very rich and fertile country drained by the Blue Earth. This whole country is well settled, and very fertile in corn and wheat.

The crops that do best in Minnesota are wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, and corn—the latter not always a certain crop. The average yield of wheat this year is supposed to be twenty-five bushels to the acre, the largest average of any state of the Union.

There is no mineral coal in Minnesota, but the country is otherwise well supplied with fuel and means for manufacturing. For a prairie state, it is by far the best wooded and



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timbered of them all. All the region between the Upper Mississippi and the Great Lake is a wilderness of wood, except a narrow belt of prairie along the river. All the great valleys above described have an abundance of wood for fuel, fencing, and building purposes.

I think it is the best watered country in the world. A settler can hardly select him a farm in any part of the state that will not be near a spring, a creek, or lake. Cascades and



St. Paul.

waterfalls, too, are to be found all over the state, and are valued for their beauty and utility. Water-power, as it is called, is inexhaustible in Minnesota, and is rapidly being appropriated to various branches of manufacturing. Flour and lumber have already become important staples, and command high and cash prices, from the Falls of St. Anthony to New Orleans. Other manufacturing will soon spring up, and make Minnesota, in this respect, the New England of the north-west.

The more intense periods of cold in the winter of Minnesota, are shorn of their severity, by the absence of winds and the peculiar dryness of the atmosphere, which imparts an elasticity and buoyancy to the spirits. It has been ascertained by theometrical observations, continued for many years at Fort Snelling, that its spring temperature is identical with that of Massachusetts; its summer with that of northern Ohio; its autumn with that of northern Vermont, and its winter is like that of Montreal. The population of Minnesota, in 1850, was 6,075, and in 1860, 176,535: and farms under cultivation, 19,075.

ST. PAUL, the capital of Minnesota, derives its name from the Catholic church which had been organized there six years previous to the laying out of the town. St. Paul stands on the left or east bank of the Mississippi; but at this particular point the course of the river is from south-west to north-east: the town is 8 miles below the Falls of St. Anthony, and 5 below Fort Snelling and the mouth of the Minnesota: distance, by the Mississippi, above New Orleans, 1,900 miles; above the mouth of the Ohio, 860; above St. Louis, 638; above Galena, 280; above La Crosse, 114; and about 400

from Chicago by the usual route of travel. The main part of St. Paul stands upon a plain of land about 80 feet above the river, and 800 above the Gulf of Mexico, on one of the most beautiful and commanding of sites. "Commercially, it is the key to all the vast region north of it, and, by the Minnesota River, to the immense valley drained through that important tributary to the Mississippi. The approach to it from below is grand and imposing. The traveler, after leaving Dubuque nearly 300 miles below, sees nothing to remind him of a city until he rounds the bend in the river below St. Paul, when her tall spires, substantial business houses, and neat dwellings burst upon his view." St. Paul is near the geographical center of the continent, and is the prominent business point of one of the most beautiful, fertile, and healthy of countries. Population 1860, 10,401.

The first settlers at St. Paul were the Swiss, originally from Pembina, Lord Selkirk's colony, on the Red River of the North. In the spring of 1825, the colonists there were driven from their homes by a terrible freshet in the river, consequent upon the melting of the snows. "After the flood, they could no longer remain in the land of their adversity, and they became the pioneers in emigration and agriculture in the state of Minnesota. At one time a party of 243 departed for the United States, who found homes at different points on the banks of the Mississippi. Before the eastern wave of emigration had ascended beyond Prairie du Chien, the Swiss had opened farms on and near St. Paul, and should be recognized as the first actual settlers in the country." They first located on the land on the east side of the Mississippi, between St. Paul and Fort Snelling, and commenced improvements. In March, 1838, the commander at the fort selected this land as a part of a military reservation. It was, therefore, withheld from sale. The settlers, who were principally the Swiss, were ordered to be removed by the war department. On the 6th and 7th of May, 1840, the troops from the fort, with undue haste, removed these unfortunate people, and destroyed their cabins; they then removed to the site of St. Paul; among them were Messrs. Massey, Perry, Garvis and Pierrie.

"The year [1835] the Dakotahs ceded the land east of the Mississippi," says Neill in his History of Minnesota, "a Canadian Frenchman, by the name of Parant, the ideal of an Indian whisky seller, erected a shanty at what is now the principal steamboat landing in St. Paul. Ignorant and overbearing, he loved money more than his soul. Destitute of one eye, and the other resembling that of a pig, he was a good representative of Caliban.

In the year 1842, some one writing a letter in his groggery, for the want of a more euphonious name, designated the place as 'Pig's Eye,' referring to the peculiar appearance of the whisky seller. The reply to the letter was directed in good faith to 'Pig's Eye,' and was received in due time.

In 1842, the late Henry Jackson, of Mahkato, settled at the same spot, and erected the first store on the high just above the lower landing; and shortly after, Roberts and Simpson followed, and opened small Indian trading shops. In the year 1846, the site of St. Paul was chiefly occupied by a few shanties, owned by 'certain lewd fellows of the baser sort,' who sold rum to the soldier and Indian. It was despised by all decent white men, and known to the Dakotahs by an expression in their tongue, which means, the place where they sell minne-wakan."*

St. Paul was laid off as a town into lots in July, 1847, by Ira B. Bruuson, of Prairie du Chien, in the employment of residents. "The names of those who were then sole proprietors, barring Uncle Sam's prior lien, were Vetal Guerin, Alex. R. McLeod, Henry Jackson, Hartshorn & Randall, Louis Roberts, Benj. Gervais, David Farribault, A. L. Larpenneur, J. W. Simpson, and J. Demurrais." For a year or two the place showed no signs of a promising future, until the Hon. Henry M. Rice bought in, and by his energy and reputation for forecast, "infused new life into the place." When the territorial bill for the organization of Minnesota was passed, St. Paul, through the exertions of Hon. Henry H. Sibley, was named as the temporary capital. The act was signed on the 3d of March, 1849. Says Neill:

"More than a month after the adjournment of congress, just at eve, on the 9th of April, amid terrific peals of thunder and torrents of rain, the weekly steam packet, the first to force its way through the icy barrier of Lake Pepin, rounded the rocky point, whistling loud and long, as if the bearer of glad tidings. Before she was safely moored to the landing, the shouts of the excited villagers announced that there was a Territory of Minnesota,

and that St. Paul was the seat of government. Every successive steamboat arrival poured out on the landing men big with hope, and anxious to do something to mold the future of the new state.

Nine days after the news of the existence of the Territory of Minnesota was received, there arrived James M. Goodhue with press, types, and printing apparatus. A graduate of Amherst College, and a lawyer by profession, he wielded a sharp pen, and wrote editorials, which, more than anything else, perhaps, induced emigration. Though a man of some glaring faults, one of the counties properly bears his name. On the 28th of April, he issued the first number of the 'Pioneer.'

On the 27th of May, Alexander Ramsey, the governor, and family arrived at St. Paul, but, owing to the crowded state of the public houses, immediately proceeded in the steamer to the establishment of the fur company known as Mendota, at the junction of the Minnesota and Mississippi, and became the guest of the Hon. H. H. Sibley.

For several weeks there resided, at the confluence of these rivers, four individuals who, more than any other men, have been identified with the public interests of Minnesota, and given the state its present character. Their names are attached to the thriving counties of Ramsey, Rice, Sibley, and Steele.

'As unto the low, the cord is,
So unto the man is the woman,
Though she bends him, she obeys him,
Though she draws him, yet she follows,
Useless each without the other.'

Fort Snelling, originally called Fort St. Anthony, is a noted point in the history of Minnesota. It



PORT SNELLING.

stands on a lofty bluff, 5 miles above St. Paul, on the west bank of the Mississippi, at the junction of the Minnesota, and on the north bank of the latter. It is composed of large barracks and numerous edifices, surrounded by thick walls. Previous to the organization of Minnesota, in 1849, it was the only important point north of Prairie du Chien, and was for years the rendezvous of missionaries, of scientific explorers, and of mercantile adventurers, on their way to the Dakotahs. The scenery at this point, up the valley of the Minnesota, is surpassingly beautiful. The fort was named from Col. Snelling. He was a brave officer of the war of 1812, and particularly distinguished himself at Tippecanoe and Brownstown. He died in 1828.

In Feb., 1819, the war department ordered the 5th regiment of infantry to concentrate at Detroit, for the purpose of transportation to the Mississippi, to garrison Prairie du Chien and Rock Island, and to establish a post as the head-quarters of the corps at the mouth of the Minnesota.

Col. Leavenworth ascended the Mississippi with his soldiers in keel boats, and erected temporary barracks above the present village of Mendota, on the south side of the river, where they wintered. Col. Snelling subsequently assumed command of the garrison. On the 10th of September of the next year (1820), the corner stone of Fort Snelling was laid.

The wife of Colonel Snelling, "a few days after her arrival at the post, gave birth to the first infant of white parents in Minnesota, which, after a brief existence of thirteen months, departed to a better land. The dilapidated monument which marks the remains of the 'little one,' is still visible in the graveyard of the fort. Beside Mrs. Snelling, the wife of the commissary, and of Captain Gooding, were in the garrison, the first American ladies that ever wintered in Minnesota."

The *Minne-ha-ha Falls*, the existence of which the genius of Longfellow

has perpetuated in living lines, is within a few minutes drive from Fort Snelling, or St. Anthony, being between these two points.

"Waterfalls, in the Dakotah tongue, are called *ha-ha*. The *h*, has a strong guttural sound, and the word is applied because of the *curling* or *laughing* of the waters. The verb *I-ha-ha* primarily means to *curl*; secondarily to *laugh*, because of the curling motion of the mouth in laughter. The noise of *Ha-ha* is called by the Dakotahs *I-ha-ha*, because of its resemblance to laughter. A small rivulet, the outlet of Lake Harriet and Calhoun, gently gliding over the bluff into an amphitheater, forms this graceful waterfall. It has but little of 'the cataract's thunder.' Niagara symbolizes the sublime; St. Anthony the picturesque: *Ha-ha* the beautiful. The fall is about sixty feet, presenting a parabolic curve, which drops, without the least deviation, until it has reached its lower level, when the stream goes on its way rejoicing, curling along in laughing, childish glee at the graceful feat it has performed in bounding over the precipice."



MINNE-HA-HA FALLS.

"Here the Falls of Minne-ha-ha
Flash and gleam among the oak trees,
Laugh and leap into the valley."

St. Anthony is beautifully situated, on a gently rising prairie, on the left or east bank of the Mississippi, at the Falls of St. Anthony, 8 miles by land above St. Paul, 2 miles further north, and 12 by the windings of the river, and also 7 miles by the latter above Fort Snelling. "The first dwelling was erected in this city in the autumn of 1847, and Mrs. Ard Godfrey claims the honor of having given birth to the first of the fair daughters of St. Anthony." Here is located the University of the State. "Minnesota seems determined to be in advance of other states in education, for *two sections* in every township have been appropriated for the support of common schools, no other state having previously obtained more than *one* section in each of its townships for such a purpose."

The celebrated Falls of St. Anthony were named, in 1680, by their discoverer, Louis Hennepin, in honor of his patron saint.

"They are only twenty feet in height; but the scenery does not derive its interest from their grandeur, but from the perfect grouping of rock and wood and water on a magnificent scale. The Mississippi is upward of six hundred yards wide above the falls. These are quite perpendicular, and the water drops in beautiful single sheets on either side of a huge mass of white sandstone, of a pyramidal form, which splits the stream. The rapids below extend for several hundred yards, and are very broad, divided into various channels by precipitous islands of sandstone, gigantic blocks of which are strewn in grotesque confusion at the base of lofty walls of stratification of dazzling whiteness. These fantastically-shaped islands are thickly wooded, and birch and maple cling with desperate tenacity to nooks and crannies in the perpendicular cliffs. The banks of the river are of a character similar to the islands in its stream. The snowy-white houses of St. Anthony are almost hidden by the thick foliage of the left bank."

Situated at the head of navigation on the Mississippi, with an unlimited water power, St. Anthony has a fine prospect of becoming an important manufacturing and commercial city. It has abundance of building stone, is in a rich agricultural region, and with abundance of lumber in its vicinity.

Immediately opposite St. Anthony is the thriving town of *Minneapolis*. An elegant suspension bridge connects the two places. "As a work of beauty and art it can hardly be surpassed, while it has the appearance of great solidity; its massive cables being firmly anchored on either side in the solid rock. The work was undertaken in the spring of 1854, and finished the next year, at an expense of over \$50,000, being the first suspension bridge ever built in a territory, and the first to span the Father of Waters." The two places, St. Anthony and Minneapolis, have unitedly about 7,000 inhabitants.

*Travelers visiting this region are apt to be eloquent in their descriptions. Part of this is no doubt to be attributed to the pure, dry, bracing atmosphere, which not only imparts a wondrous distinctness to the whole landscape, lending unwonted charms to the skies above, and to the earth beneath, but so braces up the system with the sensation of high health, that the stranger looks upon all things around him with most pleasing emotions. The effect of this elastic, life-giving atmosphere has, indeed, been described by some, as at times producing in them a buoyancy of feeling, that they could compare to nothing but the exhilaration occasioned by a slight indulgence in ardent spirits! Here the weak man feels a strong man, and the strong man a giant! The enthusiastic Bond, in his work on Minnesota, says that, owing to the strengthening nature of the climate, the labor of one man will produce more, and yield a larger surplus above his necessities, than in any other western state or territory. "We have," says he, "none of the languor, and debility, and agues, that turn men into feeble women in the harvest field, as they have south of us. *Labor here stands firmly on its legs, the year round, and drives things through!*"

Among the travelers in this region, who have spoken in its praise, is the celebrated savant Maury, superintendent of the National Observatory, at Washington. Says he:

At the small hours of the night, at dewy eve and early morn, I have looked out with wonder, love, and admiration upon the steel-blue sky of Minnesota, set with diamonds, and sparkling with brilliants of purest ray. The stillness of your small hours is sublime. I feel constrained, as I gaze and admire, to hold my breath, lest the eloquent silence of the night should be broken by the reverberations of the sound, from the seemingly solid but airy vault above.

Herschell has said, that in Europe, the astronomer might consider himself highly favored, if by patiently watching the skies for one year, he shall, during that period find, all told, one hundred hours suitable for satisfactory observations. A telescope, mounted here, in this atmosphere, under the skies of Minnesota, would have its powers increased many times over what they would be under canopies of a heaven less brilliant and lovely.

Col. F. A. Lumsden, of the New Orleans Picayune, writing from St. Anthony, two weeks before his death and that of his family by shipwreck, on the ill-fated steamer Lady Elgin, on Lake Michigan, thus gives vent to his admiration:

I have missed much by not having visited this section of country before, and one can have no correct idea of this region by anything they may hear or read about it. The scenery—the country—the lakes and the rivers—the crops and the climate are the finest in the world.

Such scenery as the Upper Mississippi presents I have never beheld: its beauties, its romantic grandeur can never be justly described. On either shore of this vast river, for miles on miles, stand the everlasting hills, their slopes covered with the emerald carpeting of spring.

As a place of summer resort, abounding in all the requisites of pleasure and health, St. Anthony excels all the watering places of the fashionable and expensive east. As for the Falls of St. Anthony, they are ruined by Yankee enterprise, and all their beauty has departed. Mills, foundries, dams and lumber rafts have spoilt all of nature's romantic loveliness by their innovations, and you would be astonished to see the hundreds of houses recently erected here, some of which are beautiful and costly specimens of architecture, that would prove ornaments to any city. The Winston House, at St. Anthony, is one of the largest and most elegant hotels of the north west, built of stone at a cost of \$110,000, and furnished in princely style. It is now filled with southern people.

This is my fourth day here, and I already begin to experience the fine effects of the invigorating climate and stimulating atmosphere. I have been hunting and fishing, and found the sport excellent. There are plenty of deer in the neighborhood, but I have seen none of them yet. The chief shooting is the prairie chicken, and they are in abundance in the plains and stubble fields. For fishing one can hardly go amiss. Within a range of from six to twenty miles from the town, are several magnificent lakes. In all of these, the greatest quantity of fish is to be found, such as perch, of various kinds, pickerel, bass, trout, etc., while in numerous small streams, hundreds of trout—the *regular speckled trout*—are taken daily. A gay and joyous party of us yesterday visited Lake Minnetonka, where we got up a very handsome picnic, and had a good time. A party of six gentlemen, all from the south, are to start to-morrow for the buffalo grounds of the Red River of the North, on a grand hunting expedition.

The Minnesota River and Fort Snelling, as well as the pretty little Falls of Minnehaha, lie between St. Paul and this place. From the heights of Fort Snelling a most enchanting view of the rich valley of the Minnesota is had; and the traveler looks out upon the vast plain, stretching away beneath his vision, with emotions of surprise—almost of bewilderment—at the stupendous scene. *What wealth, what riches have the United States not acquired in the possession of this great domain of the north?*

Winona, is on the Mississippi River, 150 miles below Saint Paul, and has 4,000 inhabitants. It was named from the Indian maiden Winona, who, according to the legend, threw herself from a cliff into Lake Pepin, and found a grave in its waters, rather than wed an uncongenial brave. *Red Wing* and *Hastings* are smaller towns, on the Mississippi, the first the seat of Hamlin University, a methodist institution, and on that beautiful expansion of the Mississippi, Lake Pepin: Hastings is 25 miles below St. Paul.

Mendota is on a beautiful island, at the junction of the Minnesota with the Mississippi. It possesses great advantages in position, and was for a long time a noted trading post of the American Fur Company. Immediately in the rear of Mendota rises the lofty Pilot Knob, which is much visited.

Beside the above there are numerous other rising towns in Minnesota, of which we have not descriptions at hand, as *Wabashaw*, *Shakopee*, *Le Sueur*, *Nicollat*, *Stillwater*, *Lake City*, etc. Whatever descriptions may be given of the rising towns in the west are of doubtful value, excepting as a matter of history, for often is the rapidity of their increase so great, that the statistics of one season are of no reliability as a basis of knowledge a few seasons later.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES, MISCELLANIES, ETC.

Nicholas Perrot was one of those master minds whose enterprises mark the history of their times. He was by birth a Canadian, bred to the excitements of a frontier life. Educated by the service to the Jesuits, he became familiar with the customs and languages of the savages of the lakes of the far west. Years before La Salle launched the Griffin on Lake Erie, he was sent by government on an errand to the tribes of the north-west, and penetrated even as far south as Chicago. He was the first man known to have built a trading post on the Upper Mississippi, which he did on the shores of Lake Pepin. According to the Dakota tradition, he gave seed and corn to their people, through the influence of which the Dakotahs began to be led away from the rice grounds of the Mille Lac region.

Louis Hennepin was born in Ath, Netherlands. He was bred a priest of the Recollect branch of the Franciscans. From his youth he had a passion for travel and adventure, and sought out the society of strangers, "who spent their time in nothing else but either to tell or hear some new thing." In 1676, he welcomed with joy the order from his superior to embark for Canada. He accompanied La Salle in his celebrated expedition to explore the far west. In Feb., 1680, he was dispatched by La Salle, with two voyageurs in a canoe, on a voyage of discovery up the unknown regions of the Upper Mississippi. It was on this journey that he discovered and named the Falls of St. Anthony. In 1683, he published, at Paris, a tolerably correct account of his travels in Minnesota. In 1698, he issued an enlarged edition, dedicated to King William, in which he falsely claimed to have descended the Mississippi to its mouth. His descriptions were stolen from the works of other travelers. Wishing to return to Canada, the minister of Louis XIV wrote, "As his majesty is not satisfied with the conduct of the friar, it is his pleasure that if he return thither, that they arrest and send him to the intendant at Rochefort." "In the year 1701, he was still in Europe, attached to a convent in Italy. He appears to have died in obscurity, unwept and unhonored."

Jean N. Nicollet was born in 1790, in Cluses, Savoy. So poor were his parents that he was obliged, at the early age of nine years, to gain a subsistence by playing upon the flute and violin. When ten years old, he was apprenticed to a watch-maker, and turned his leisure hours to the study of mathematics. He eventually moved to Paris and entered the normal school, later became a college professor, and gained distinction as an astronomer, receiving the decoration of the Legion of Honor. In 1832, he emigrated to the United States, poor and honest. In the summer of 1836, he came to Minnesota, and explored the sources of the Upper Mississippi, with scientific exactness. Soon after he received a commission from the United States to explore the sources of the Minnesota, and at this time was assisted by John C. Fremont. "The map which he constructed, and the astronomical observations which he made, were invaluable to the country." Hon. H. H. Sibley, in his notice of Nicollet, says:

"His health was so seriously affected after his return to Washington in 1839, that from that time forward he was incapacitated from devoting himself to the accomplishment of his work as exclusively as he had previously done. Still he labored, but it was with depressed spirits and blighted hopes. He had long aspired to a membership in the Academy of Sciences of Paris. His long continued devotion and valuable contributions to the cause of science, and his correct deportment as a gentleman, alike entitled him to such a distinction. But his enemies were numerous and influential, and when his name was presented in accordance with a previous nomination, to fill a vacancy, he was black-balled and rejected. This last blow was mortal. True, he strove against the incurable melancholy which had fastened itself upon him, but his struggles waxed more and more faint, until death put a period to his sufferings on the 18th of September, 1844.

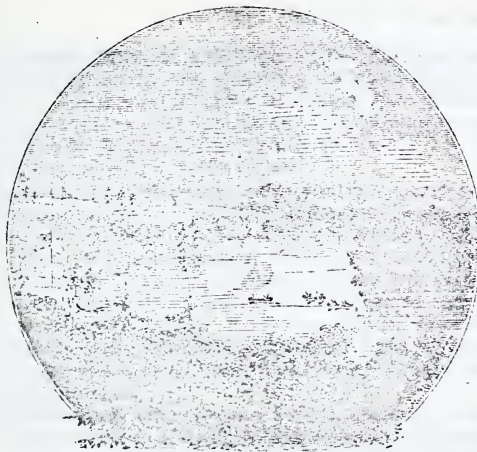
Even when he was aware that his dissolution was near at hand, his thoughts reverted back to the days when he roamed along the valley of the Minnesota River. It was my fortune to meet him for the last time, in the year 1842, in Washington City. A short time before his death, I received a kind but mournful letter from him, in which he adverted to the fact that his days were numbered, but at the same time he expressed a hope that he would have strength sufficient to enable him to make his way to our country, that he might yield up his breath and be interred on the banks of his beloved stream.

It would have been gratifying to his friends to know that the soil of the region which had employed so much of his time and scientific research, had received his mortal remains

into his bosom, but they were denied this melancholy satisfaction. He sleeps beneath the sod far away, in the vicinity of the capital of the nation, but his name will continue to be cherished in Minnesota as one of its early explorers, and one of its best friends. The astronomer, the geologist, and the christian gentleman, Jean N. Nicollet, will long be remembered in connection with the history of the north-west.

'Time shall quench full many
A people's records, and a hero's acts.
Sweep empire after empire into nothing;
But even then shall spare this deed of thine.
And hold it up, a problem few dare imitate.
And none despise.'

Lake Itasca is one of the multitude of those clear, beautiful sheets of water which do so abound in Minnesota, that the aboriginal inhabitants were called, by



LAKE ITASCA.

The Source of the Mississippi.

the early French *voyageurs*, the "*People of the Lakes*." It is estimated by Schoolcraft, that within its borders are ten thousand of these, and it is thought, it is measurably to them that the husbandman of Minnesota is so blessed with abundance of summer rains. The waters, pure, sweet, and cold, abound with fish of delicious flavor. The Indians often reared their habitations on the margins of the most beautiful and picturesque. The greater number are isolated and destitute of outlets; usually of an oval form, and from one to two and three miles in diameter, "with clear white sandy shores, gentle, grassy slopes, or rimmed with walls of rock, their pebbly beaches, sparkling with cornelians and agates, while the oak grove or denser wood

which skirts its margin, completes the graceful outline."

Among all these sheets of water that by day and by night reflect the glories of this northern sky, the lake named *Itasca*, from an Indian maiden, is especially honored. For here, from the lap of encircling hills, in latitude 47 deg. 13 min. 35 sec., 1,575 feet above the ocean, and 2,527 miles from it, by its own meanderings, the Mississippi, the Father of Waters, finds his birth-place.

Lake Itasca was first brought to the notice of the civilized world as the source of the Mississippi, by Mr. Henry R. Schoolcraft, Indian agent at Sault Ste. Marie. In the summer of 1832, he was given charge of an expedition to visit the Indians toward the source of the Mississippi. Attached to the expedition was a military escort, under Lieut. James Allen, Dr. Houghton, geologist of Michigan, and Rev. W. T. Boutwell, who was sent out by the American Board, preliminary to establishing missions among the Indians. They crossed over from the west end of Lake Superior, and at two o'clock on the afternoon of the 13th of July, reached the Elk Lake, named *Itasca* by Mr. Schoolcraft. "With the exception of traders, no white men had ever traced the Mississippi so far. The lake is about eight miles in length, and was called Elk by the Ojibways, because of its regularities, resembling the horns of that animal. Lieut. Allen, the commander of the military detachment, who made the first map of this lake, thus speaks:

'From these hills, which were seldom more than two or three hundred feet high

we came suddenly down to the lake, and passed nearly through it to an island near its west end, where we remained one or two hours. We were sure that we had reached the true source of the great river, and a feeling of great satisfaction was manifested by all the party. Mr. Schoolcraft hoisted a flag on a high staff on the island, and left it flying. The lake is about seven miles long, and from one to three broad, but is of an irregular shape, conforming to the bases of pine hills, which, for a great part of its circumference, rise abruptly from its shore. It is deep, cold, and very clear, and seemed to be well stocked with fish. Its shores show some boulders of primitive rock, but no rock in place. The island, the only one on the lake, is one hundred and fifty yards long, fifty yards broad in the highest part, elevated twenty or thirty feet, overgrown with elm, pine, spruce, and wild cherry. There can be no doubt that this is the true source and fountain of the longest and largest branch of the Mississippi."

THE INDIANS OF MINNESOTA.

"Minnesota, from its earliest discovery, has been the residence of two powerful tribes, the Chippewas or Ojibways, and the Sioux—pronounced *Sooz*—or Dahkotahs.* The word Chippewa is a corruption of the term Ojibway, and that of Dahkotah signifies the allied tribes. The Winnebago from Iowa, and the Menomomies from Wisconsin, have recently been removed to Minnesota. They are both small tribes compared to the above.

The Dahkotahs claim a country equal in extent to some of the most powerful empires of Europe, including the greater part of the country between the Upper Mississippi and the Missouri. The country from Rum River to the River De Corbeau has been alike claimed by them and the Ojibways, and has been the source of many bloody encounters within the last two hundred years. The Dahkotahs have destroyed immense numbers of their race, and are one of the most warlike tribes of North America. They are divided into six bands, comprising in all, 28,000 souls. Besides these, a revolted band of the Sioux, 8,000 strong, called Osinipouilles, reside just east of the Rocky Mountains, upon Saskatchewan River of British America.

The Dahkotahs subsist upon buffalo meat and the wild fruits of their forests. The former is called *pemmican*, and is prepared in winter for traveling use in the following manner: The lean parts of the buffalo are cut into thin slices, dried over a slow fire in the sun, or by exposing it to frost—pounded fine, and then with a portion of berries, mixed with an equal quantity of fat from the hump and brisket, or with marrow in a boiling state, and sowed up tightly in sacks of green hide, or packed closely in baskets of wicker-work. This 'pemmican' will keep for several years.

They also use much of the *wild rice*, which grows in great abundance in the lakes and head streams in the Upper Mississippi country. The rivers and lakes of the Dahkotah and Ojibway country are said to produce annually several millions of bushels of it. It is said to be equally as nutritious and palatable as the Carolina rice. It grows in water from four to seven feet deep, which has a muddy bottom. The plant rises from four to eight feet above the surface of the water, about the size of the red cane of Tennessee, full of joints and of the color and texture of bulrushes. The stalks above the water, and the branches which bear the grain, resemble oats. To these strange grain fields, wild ducks and geese resort for food in the summer; and to prevent it being devoured by them, the Indians tie

* "The Dahkotahs in the earliest documents, and even until the present day, are called Sioux, Scioux, or Soos. The name originated with the early 'voyageurs.' For centuries the Ojibways of Lake Superior waged war against the Dahkotahs; and, whenever they spoke of them, called them *Nadowaysioux*, which signifies enemies. The French traders, to avoid exciting the attention of the Indians, while conversing in their presence, were accustomed to designate them by names which would not be recognized. The Dahkotahs were nicknamed *Sioux*, a word composed of the two last syllables of the Ojibway word for foes."—Neill's *Minnesota*.

it, when in the milky state, just below the head, into large bunches. This arrangement prevents these birds from pressing the heads down when within their reach. When ripe, the Indians pass among it with canoes lined with blankets, into which they bend the stalks and whip off the grain with sticks; and so abundant is it

DOG DANCE OF THE DAHKOTAHS.



OJIBWAY SCALP DANCE.



*The notes marked with accents are performed with a tremulous voice,
sounded High-yi-yi, &c.*

that an expert squaw will soon fill a canoe. After being gathered it is dried and put into skins or baskets for use. They boil or parch it, and eat it in the winter season with their pemmican. Beside the pemmican and wild rice, the country abounds in sugar-maple, from which the Indians make immense quantities of sugar. Their country abounds with fine groves, interspersed with open plains clothed with rich wild grasses—their lakes and rivers of pure water are well stored with fish, and their soil with the whortleberry, blackberry, wild plum, and crab apple; so that this talented and victorious race possess a very desirable and beautiful territory.

The Ojibways inhabit the head-waters of the Mississippi, Ottertail and Leach, De Corbeau and Red Rivers, and Winnipeg Lake. They are a powerful tribe, almost equaling the Dakotahs in numbers: they speak a copious language, and are of low stature and coarse features. The women have an awkward side-at-a-time gait; which proceeds from their being 'accustomed, nine months of the year, to wear snow-shoes, and drag sledges of a weight from two hundred to four hundred pounds. No people are more attentive to comfort in dress than the Ojibways. It is composed of deer and fawn-skins, dressed with the hair on for winter, and without the hair for summer wear.

They are superstitious in the extreme. Almost every action of their lives is influenced by some whimsical notion. They believe in the existence of a good and an evil spirit, that rule, in their several departments, over the fortunes of men; and in a state of future rewards and punishments."

EFFECT OF THE CLIMATE OF MINNESOTA ON LUNG DISEASES.

[From the Letters of the Rev. Dr. Horace Bushnell.]

I went to Minnesota early in July, and remained there until the latter part of the May following. I had spent a winter in Cuba without benefit. I had spent also nearly a year in California, making a gain in the dry season, and a partial loss in the wet season, returning, however, sufficiently improved to resume my labors. Breaking down again from this only partial recovery, I made the experiment now of Minnesota; and submitting myself, on returning, to a very rigid examination, by a physician who did not know at all what verdict had been passed by other physicians before, he said, in accordance with their opinion, "You have had a difficulty in the right lung, but it is healed." I had suspected from my symptoms that it might be so, and the fact appears to be confirmed by the further fact that I have been slowly, though irregularly gaining all the summer.

This improvement, or partial recovery, I attribute to the climate of Minnesota. But not to this alone—other things have concurred. First, I had a naturally firm, enduring constitution, which had only given way under excessive burdens of labor, and had no vestige of hereditary disease upon it. Secondly, I had all my burdens thrown off, and a state of complete, uncaring rest. Thirdly, I was in such vigor as to be out in the open air, on horseback and otherwise, a good part of the time. It does not follow, by any means, that one who is dying under hereditary consumption, or one who is too far gone to have any power of endurance, or spring of recuperative energy left, will be recovered in the same manner.

A great many such go there to die, and some to be partially recovered and then die: for I knew of two young men, so far recovered as to think themselves well, or nearly so, who by overviolent exertion brought on a recurrence of bleeding, and died, one of them almost instantly, and the other in about twenty-four hours; both in the same week. The general opinion seemed to be that the result was attributable, in part, to the overtonic property of the atmosphere. And I have known of very remarkable cases of recovery there which had seemed to be hopeless. One of a gentleman who was carried ashore on a litter, and became a robust, hearty man. Another who told me that he had even coughed up bits of his lung, of the size of a walnut, and was then, seven or eight months after, a perfectly sound-looking, well-set man, with no cough at all. I fell in with somebody every few days who had come there and been restored; and with multitudes of others whose disease had been arrested, so as to allow the prosecution of business, and whose lease of life, as they had no doubt, was much lengthened by their migration to that region of the country. Of course it will be understood that a great many are sadly disappointed in going thither, and that as the number of consumptives making the trial increases, the funerals of the consumptive strangers are becoming sadly frequent.

The peculiar benefit of this climate appears to be from its dryness. There is as much, or even a little more of rain there than elsewhere, in the summer months; but it comes more generally in the night, and the days that follow brighten out in a fresh, tonic brilliancy, as dry almost as before. The winter climate is intensely

cold, and yet so dry, and clear, and still, for the most part, as to create no very great suffering. One who is properly dressed finds the climate much more enjoyable than the amphibious, half-fluid, half-solid, sloppy, grave-like chill of the east. The snows are light; a kind of snow-dew that makes an inch, or sometimes three, in a night. Real snow-storms are rare; there were none the last winter. A little more snow to make better sleighing would be an improvement. As to rain in the winter, it is almost unknown. There was no drop of rain the last winter, from the latter part of October to the middle, or about the middle of March, except a slight drizzle on thanksgiving day. And there was not snow melting enough for more than about eight or ten days to wet a deerskin moccasin (which many gentlemen wear all the winter). The following statement will show the comparative rain-fall, whether in the shape of rain or snow, for three different points, that may be taken to represent the whole country; being on the two coasts, and St. Paul in the middle of the continent: San Francisco, spring, 8 inches; summer, 0; autumn, 3; winter, 10; mean, 21. St. Paul, spring, 6 inches; summer, 12; autumn, 6; winter, 2; mean, 26. Hartford, spring, 10 inches; summer, 11; autumn, 10; winter, 10; mean, 41.

The San Francisco climate stands first, here, in dryness, it will be observed; but it requires to be noted, in the comparison, that while there is no rain-fall there for a whole six months, there is yet a heavy sea fog rolling in every day, which makes the St. Paul climate really the driest of the two. The beautiful inversion, too, of the California water-season, at St. Paul, will be noticed; the water falling here in the summer, when it is wanted, and ceasing in the winter, when it is not.

I O W A .

IOWA derived its name from the *Iowa* Indians, who were located on the Iowa River. They at last became incorporated with other tribes, principally



ARMS OF IOWA.

MOTTO—Our liberties we prize, and our rights we will maintain.

among the Sauks, or Sacs and Foxes. These tribes had the reputation of being the best hunters of any on the borders of the Mississippi or Missouri. At the time the first white traders went among them, their practice was to leave their villages as soon as their corn and beans were ripe and secured, to go on to their wintering grounds, it being previously determined in council on what particular ground each party should hunt. The old men, women, and children embarked in canoes; the young men went by land with their horses; and on their arrival, they commenced their winter's hunt, which lasted about three months. In the month of April, they returned to their villages to cultivate their lands. Iowa was origin-

ally a part of the French province of Louisiana. The first white settlement was made at Dubuque. As early as 1800, there were mines of lead worked at this place by the natives, assisted by Julien Dubuque, an Indian trader, who had adopted their habits, married into their tribe, and became a great chief among them. In 1830, a war among the Indians themselves was carried on with savage barbarity. Some 10 or 12 Sac and Fox chiefs, with their party, were going to Prairie du Chien from Dubuque, to attend a treaty conference with the U. S. commissioners, when they were attacked at Cassville Island by a large war party of the Sioux, and literally cut to pieces, only two of all their number escaping. The tribe, now in great confusion and alarm, left Dubuque, mostly never to return, leaving the mines and this part of the country vacant, and open to settlement, as when occupied by them, they would allow no one to intrude upon their lands. In June of this year, Mr. L. H. Langworthy, accompanied by his elder brother, crossed the Mississippi in a

canoe, swimming their horses by its side, and landed for the first time on the west bank of the stream. Soon after this, a number of miners crossed over the river, possessed themselves of these vacant lands, and commenced successful mining operations. "This was the first flow or the first tide of civilization in Iowa." The miners, however, were soon driven off by Capt. Zachary Taylor, then commanding at Prairie du Chien, and a military force stationed at Dubuque till 1832, when the "Black Hawk War" commenced. After the Indians were defeated the miners returned.

Until as late as the year 1832, the whole territory north of the state of Missouri was in undisputed possession of the Indians. After the Indians were defeated at the battle of the Bad Ax, in Wisconsin, Aug., 1832, partly to indemnify the government for the expenses of the war, the Sacs and Foxes ceded to the United States a strip of country west of the Mississippi, extending nearly 300 miles N. of Missouri, and 50 miles wide, commonly called the "*Black Hawk Purchase*." Further purchases were made in 1836 and 1837; and in 1842, by a treaty concluded by Gov. Chambers, a tract of about *fifteen million acres* was purchased of the Sacs and Foxes, for one million of dollars. This tract, comprising some of the finest counties of the state, is known as the "*New Purchase*."

The Pottowatomies, who inhabited the south-western corner of the state, and the Winnebagoes, who occupied the "Neutral Ground," a strip of country on the northern borders, have been recently peaceably removed, and the Indian title has thus become extinct within the limits of Iowa. The territory now comprised within the limits of the state was a part of the Missouri Territory from 1804 to 1821, but after that was placed successively under the jurisdiction of Michigan and Wisconsin Territories. The following concluding details of its history are from Monette:

"The first white settlement in the Black Hawk Purchase was made near the close of the year 1832, at Fort Madison, by a colony introduced by Zachariah Hawkins, Benjamin Jennings, and others.

In the summer of 1835, the town-plat of 'Fort Madison' was laid off by Gen. John H. Knapp and Col. Nathaniel Knapp, the first lots in which were exposed to sale early in the year 1836. The second settlement was made in 1833, at Burlington, seventy-nine miles below Rock Island. About the same time the city of Dubuque, four hundred and twenty-five miles above St. Louis, received its first Anglo-American population. Before the close of the year 1833, settlements of less note were commenced at many other points near the western shore of the Mississippi, within two hundred miles of the northern limits of the state of Missouri. It was in the autumn of 1834, that Aaron Street, a member of the 'Society of Friends,' and son of the Aaron Street who emigrated from Salem, in New Jersey, founded the first Salem in Ohio, and subsequently the first Salem in Indiana, on a tour of exploration to the Iowa country, in search of 'a new home,' selected the 'beautiful prairie eminence' south of Skunk River as the site of another Salem in the 'Far West.' In his rambles thirty miles west of Burlington, over the uninhabited regions, in all their native loveliness, he was impressed with the great advantages presented by the 'beautiful and fertile prairie country, which abounded in groves of tall forest trees, and was watered by crystal streams flowing among the variegated drapery of the blooming prairies.' Transported with the prospect, the venerable patriarch exclaimed, 'Now have mine eyes beheld a country teeming with every good thing, and hither will I come, with my children and my children's children, and my flocks and

herds; and our dwelling-place shall be called 'Salem,' after the peaceful city of our fathers.'

Next year witnessed the commencement of the town of Salem, on the frontier region of the Black Hawk Purchase, the first Quaker settlement in Iowa. Five years afterward this colony in the vicinity of Salem numbered nearly one thousand souls, comprising many patriarchs bleached by the snows of seventy winters, with their descendants to the third and fourth generations. Such was the first advance of the Anglo-American population west of the Upper Mississippi, within the 'District of Iowa,' which, before the close of the year 1834, contained nearly five thousand white inhabitants. Meantime, for the convenience of temporary government, the settlements west of the Mississippi, extending more than one hundred miles north of the Des Moines River, had been by congress erected into the 'District of Iowa,' and attached to the District of Wisconsin, subject to the jurisdiction of the Michigan Territory.

The District of Iowa remained, with the District of Wisconsin, attached to the jurisdiction of Michigan Territory, until the latter had assumed an independent state government in 1836, when the District of Wisconsin was erected into a separate government, known as the Wisconsin Territory, exercising jurisdiction over the District of Iowa, then comprised in two large counties, designated as the counties of Des Moines and Dubuque. The aggregate population of these counties in 1836 was 10,531 persons. It was not long before the District of Iowa became noted throughout the west for its extraordinary beauty and fertility, and the great advantages which it afforded to agricultural enterprise.

Already the pioneer emigrants had overrun the first Black Hawk Purchase, and were advancing upon the Indian country west of the boundary line. Settlements continued to extend, emigration augmented the population, and land offices were established at Dubuque and Burlington for the sale of such lands as were surveyed.

Meantime, the District of Iowa, before the close of the year 1838, had been subdivided into sixteen counties, with an aggregate population of 22,860 souls, distributed sparsely over the whole territory to which the Indian title had been extinguished. The same year, on the 4th of July, agreeably to the provisions of an act of congress, approved June 12, 1838, the District of Iowa was erected into an independent territorial government, known as the 'Territory of Iowa.' The first 'territorial governor and superintendent of Indian affairs' was Robert Lucas, formerly governor of Ohio, with James Clark secretary of the territory. Charles Mason was chief justice of the superior court, and judge of the first judicial district; Joseph Williams was judge in the second district; and Thomas S. Wilson in the third. The first delegate elected by the people to represent them in congress was Augustus C. Dodge.

The Iowa Territory, as first organized, comprised 'all that region of country north of Missouri, which lies west of the Mississippi River, and of a line drawn due north from the source of the Mississippi, to the northern limit of the United States.'

The first general assembly of the Iowa Territory made provision for the permanent seat of government. On the first of May, 1839, the beautiful spot which is now occupied by the 'City of Iowa' was selected.

During the year 1839, emigration from New England, and from New York by way of the lake route from Buffalo to the ports on the western shore of

Lake Michigan, and from Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, began to set strongly into the Iowa Territory, and numerous colonies advanced to settle the beautiful and fertile lands on both sides of the Des Moines River and its numerous tributaries, as well as those upon the small tributaries of the Mississippi for two hundred miles above.

Population increased in a remarkable manner; aided by the unbounded facilities of steam navigation, both on the great lakes and upon the large tributaries of the Mississippi, the emigration to the Iowa and Wisconsin Territories was unprecedented in the history of western colonization. The census of 1840 exhibited the entire population of Iowa Territory at 43,017 persons, and that of the Wisconsin Territory at 30,945 persons.

Such had been the increase of emigration previous to 1843, that the legislature of Iowa made formal application for authority to adopt a state constitution. At the following session of congress, an act was passed to 'enable the people of the Iowa Territory to form a state government.' A convention assembled in September, and on the 7th of October, 1844, adopted a constitution for the proposed 'state of Iowa,' it being the fourth state organized within the limits of the province of Louisiana.

By the year 1844, the population of Iowa had increased to 81,921 persons; yet the people were subjected to disappointment in the contemplated change of government. The constitution adopted by the convention evinced the progress of republican feeling, and the strong democratic tendency so prominent in all the new states. The constitution for Iowa extended the right of suffrage to every free white male citizen of the United States who had resided six months in the state, and one month in the county, previous to his application for the right of voting. The judiciary were all to be elected by the people for a term of four years, and all other officers, both civil and military, were to be elected by the people at stated periods. Chartered monopolies were not tolerated, and no act of incorporation was permitted to remain in force more than twenty years, unless it were designed for public improvements or literary purposes; and the personal as well as the real estate of the members of all corporations was liable for the debts of the same. The legislature was prohibited from creating any debt in the name of the state exceeding one hundred thousand dollars, unless it were for defense in case of war, invasion, or insurrection; and in such case, the bill creating the debt should, at the same time, provide the ways and means for its redemption. Such were some of the prominent features of the first constitution adopted for the state of Iowa. Yet the state was not finally organized under this constitution, and the people of Iowa remained under the territorial form of government until the close of the year 1846.

The constitution of Iowa having been approved by congress, an act was passed March 3, 1845, for the admission of the 'state of Iowa' into the Federal Union simultaneously with the 'state of Florida,' upon the condition that the people of Iowa, at a subsequent general election, assent to the restricted limits imposed by congress, in order to conform with the general area of other western states; but the people of Iowa refused to ratify the restricted limits prescribed for the new state, a majority of nearly two thousand in the popular vote having rejected the terms of admission. Hence Iowa remained under the territorial government until the beginning of 1846, when the people, through their legislature, acquiesced in the prescribed limits, and congress authorized the formation of another constitution, preparatory to the admission of Iowa into the Union.

The people of Iowa, in 1846, assented to the restriction of limits, and the formation of a territorial government over the remaining waste territory lying north and west of the limits prescribed by congress. Petitions, with numerous signatures, demanded the proposed restriction by the organization of a separate territory, to be designated and known as the 'Dacotah Territory,' comprising the Indian territory beyond the organized settlements of Iowa. Congress accordingly authorized a second convention for the adoption of another state constitution, and this convention assembled in May, 1846, and adopted another constitution, which was submitted to congress in June following. In August, 1846, the state of Iowa was formally admitted into the Union, and the first state election was, by the proclamation of Gov. Clarke, to be held on the 26th day of October following. In the ensuing December, the first state legislature met at Iowa City."

Iowa is bounded N. by Minnesota and Dacotah Territory, W. by Missouri River, S. by the state of Missouri, and E. by Mississippi River. It is situated between $40^{\circ} 30'$ and $43^{\circ} 30'$ N. Lat., and between $90^{\circ} 20'$ and $96^{\circ} 50'$ W. Long. Its greatest width, from E. to W., is 307 miles, and 186 from N. to S.; included within its limits is an area of 59,914 square miles.

The face of Iowa is moderately uneven, without any mountains or very high hills. There is a tract of elevated table land, which extends through a considerable portion of the state, dividing the waters which fall into the Mississippi from those falling into the Missouri. The margins of the rivers and creeks, extending back from one to ten miles, are usually covered with timber, while beyond this the country is an open prairie without trees. The prairies generally have a rolling surface, not unlike the swelling of the ocean, and comprise more than two thirds of the territory of the state: the timbered lands only one tenth. The soil, both on the prairie and bottom lands, is generally excellent having a deep black mold intermingled with a sandy loam, sometimes of red clay and gravel. It is watered by streams of the clearest water, and its inland scenery is very beautiful. It is studded in parts with numerous little lakes of clear water, with gravelly shores and bottoms.

In the north-eastern part of the state are very extensive lead mines, being continuations of those of Illinois and Wisconsin. Vast coal beds exist, extending, it is stated, upward of *two hundred miles*, in the direction of the valley of the Des Moines River alone, which centrally intersects the state. The entire area of the coal fields in this state, is estimated to be not less than 35,000 square miles, nearly two thirds of the entire state. The beds of coal are estimated by geologists to be of the average thickness of 100 feet. Iron ore, zinc and copper are also found. Iowa is also rich in agricultural resources, its fertile soil producing all kinds of fruit and grains raised in northern climates. "As a general rule, the average quantity of snow and rain in Iowa is much less than in New York and New England. There are much fewer clouds. The cold weather in winter is about the same as in similar latitudes in the east; winter commences about the same time, but the spring generally opens much earlier. The intense cold weather is comparatively short. For a period of years the spring will average from two to four weeks earlier than in central New York. This difference is due to several causes.

In the east the proximity of large bodies of water gives rise to an immense number of very dense clouds, that prevent the spring sun from having the same effect as is experienced in the west. The altitude of the country, and the warm quick nature of the Iowa soil, are circumstances going far toward accounting for this difference. The heat of summer is much greater

than in the same latitude in New York and New England, though a person may work in the open sun in Iowa when the thermometer is 100 degrees above zero more comfortably than he can when it is at 90 degrees in New York. An atmosphere saturated with water is more sultry and disagreeable with the thermometer at 90, than a dry atmosphere with the thermometer at 100."

Iowa is blessed with abundance of water power, and the noblest of rivers; the Mississippi is on the east, the Missouri on the west, while numerous streams penetrate it, the finest of which is the Des Moines, the great central artery of the state, which enters it from the north and flows south-east through it for 400 miles: it is a beautiful river, with a rocky bottom and high banks, which the state is making navigable, for small steamers, to Fort Des Moines, 200 miles from its mouth.

By the census of 1856, the number of paupers was only 132 out of a population of more than half a million. Population, in 1836, 10,531; in 1840 42,017; in 1850, 192,214; in 1856, 509,000; in 1860, 674,948.



Eastern view of Dubuque, from Dunleith, Ill.

The view shows the appearance of Dubuque, as seen from the terminus of the Illinois Central Railroad on the eastern side of the Mississippi. On the left is the terminus of the Pacific and Dubuque Railroad. On the right the Shot Tower. Back of the principal part of the city are the bluffs, rising to a height of about 200 feet.

DUBUQUE, the largest city, and the first settled place in the state, is on the right or western bank of the Mississippi, 1,638 miles above New Orleans, 426 above St. Louis, and 306 below the Falls of St. Anthony. The city proper extends two miles on a table area, or terrace, immediately back of which rise a succession of precipitous bluffs, about 200 feet high. A small marshy island is in front of the city, which is being improved for business purposes. The beautiful plateau on which the city was originally laid out, being too limited for its growth, streets have been extended up and over the bluffs, on which many houses have been erected of a superior order, among which are numerous elegant residences. The Dubuque Female College is

designed to accommodate 500 scholars. The Alexander College, chartered in 1853, is located here, under the patronage of the Synod of Iowa. Several important railroads terminate at this place, which is the head-quarters and principal starting place for steamboats on the northern Mississippi. Nearly one third of the inhabitants speak the German language. Population 1860, 13,021.

Mr. J. L. Langworthy, a native of Vermont, is believed to have been the first of the Anglo-Saxon race who erected a dwelling, and smelted the first lead westward of the Mississippi. He first came here in 1827. The first act resembling civil legislation, within the limits of Iowa, was done in Dubuque. Mr. Langworthy, with four others, H. P. Lander, James McPheeters, and Samuel H. Scales, having obtained permission to dig for mineral, entered into an agreement, dated July 17, 1830, by which each man should hold 200 yards square of ground, by working on said ground one day in six, and that a person chosen by a majority of the miners present, should hold the agreement, "and grant letters of arbitration." It appears, from an indorsement on the paper, that Dr. Jarrote held the articles, and was the first person chosen by the people in the territory to be clothed with judicial powers. In Oct., 1833, Mr. Langworthy and his brothers, with a few neighbors, erected the first school-house built in Iowa. It stood but a few rods from the Female College. The first brick building erected in Dubuque was in the summer of 1837, by Le Roy Jackson, from Kentucky. This house is now standing on the corner of Iowa and Eleventh-streets, and is owned and occupied by William Rebmaier, a native of Pennsylvania, who came to Dubuque in 1836, when a lad of 14 years, and acted as hodman to the masons who erected the building. When Mr. R. came to this place, there were some 30 or 40 dwellings, many of them log cabins. The first religious services were held in a log structure, used by various denominations. The first school was kept by Rev. Nicholas S. Bastion, a Methodist preacher; the school house stood on the public square, near the Centennial Methodist Church. It is said that the first lead discovered here was by *Peosta*, an Indian chieftain or the wife of one, who presented it to Capt. Dubuque.

The site of Dubuque was anciently known as the cornfields and place of mounds of the "*Little Fox Village*." It was named, in 1834, after *Julien Dubuque*, an Indian trader, who settled here in 1788, and is generally considered as the first white settler in Iowa. He is said to have been of French and Spanish parentage. He married into the Indian tribe, adopted their habits and customs, and became a great chief among them. He was of small stature, addicted to the vices incident upon the commingling of Spanish and Indian races in America, and a great medicine man. "He would take live snakes of the most venomous kind into his arms and bosom, and was consequently regarded by the Indians with superstitious veneration. He died a victim to his vices, and was buried on a high bluff that overlooks the river, near the Indian village at the mouth of Catfish Creek." When his grave was visited by L. H. Langworthy, Esq., in 1830, a stone house, surmounted by a cedar cross, with a leaden door, stood over the spot. The remains of two Indian chiefs were also deposited within. The cross had a French inscription, of which the following is a translation:

"Julien Dubuque, miner, of the mines of Spain. Died this 24th day of March, 1810, aged 45 years 6 mo."

The Indians, being instructed by Dubuque, worked the mines of lead here as early as 1800. About the year 1830, an Indian war, between the Sioux

and the Sacs and Foxes, caused the latter to forsake their village here. Upon this the whites entered upon these lands, and several made their fortunes in a single day, by striking upon a large lode. They were, however, soon ordered to recross the river by Zachary Taylor, commanding the United States forces at Prairie du Chien, as the territory had not yet been purchased of the Indians. After the Black Hawk purchase, the west side of the Mississippi was opened for settlement. By 1834, several stores were erected; the mines increased in richness, and emigration rapidly advanced. For a time "Lynch law" was the only one recognized. The first execution for murder was that of a man who shot his partner. "Upon this event a court was organized, jury impaneled, trial had, criminal found guilty, and after a short time being allowed the prisoner to prepare for death, he was executed. The gallows was erected upon the south-west corner of White and Seventh-streets, upon a mound, which was only removed for the large block that now fills its place. The population, at that time, amounted to over 1,000, nearly the whole of which were witnesses to the final act of that dreadful tragedy."

The first newspaper issued here was by John King, Esq., under the following title:

"DUBUQUE VISITOR, *Truth our Guide—the public good our aim.* Dubuque Lead Mines, Wisconsin Territory, May 16, 1836."

In 1833, some attention was paid to agricultural pursuits. The soil proving good, the prosperity of the place greatly increased. The exportations of lead that year exceeded 6,000,000 lbs. In 1846, the lands adjoining Dubuque were brought into market, and the next year Dubuque was reincorporated under its present charter. The population at that time was less than 3,000.

"Below the 'Little Fox village,' is the bluff where the Sioux made their last and final stand against the Sacs and Foxes. It stands close upon the shore of the Mississippi, with its perpendicular walls about two hundred feet in height, and sloping back toward a low prairie, by which it is surrounded and terminates with an abrupt descent to this prairie. Here and there, scattered around it, are castellated rocks, which make it one of nature's fortifications. The Sioux were encamped on the summit of this bluff. In the night the Sacs and Foxes commenced ascending, and when near their enemy, by a fierce encounter, they secured the outposts, and in a very short time had so reduced the number of the Sioux, that those remaining, rather than have their scalps hang at their enemies' girdles, threw themselves headlong from the precipice and were dashed to pieces. At the present time, a few of the bones of those devoted warriors may be found in this their last resting place; and of late years, when the Indians visit this spot, they cast pebbles and twigs from the summit upon the remains of those below."

To the foregoing outline we annex these details from the Lectures of Lucius H. Langworthy, Esq., upon the History of Dubuque:

In 1827, the speaker came to the mines, in company with a brother and two sisters, together with Mr. Meeker, on his return from Cincinnati, Maj. Hough, Capt. Donney and lady, and five or six others.

We embarked at Quincy, Illinois, in a pirogue, and were thirty days on the voyage. A pirogue is a kind of intermediate craft, between a canoe and a keel boat. The name is French, and signifies the kind of boats used by the early voyageurs to transport their furs and effects over the shoal waters and rapid streams of the western wilderness. I mention the time occupied in our journey hither, in order to show some of the difficulties of settling this new country at that early period. Think of a boat's crew, with several ladies on board, all unaccustomed to the river, being compelled to work a boat up with poles and oars, against the swollen current of this mighty stream, in the hot weather of June, sleeping on sand bars, or anchored

out in the river at night, to avoid the mosquitoes, or lurking Indians, living upon salt pork and dry biscuit, coffee without cream or sugar, and withal making only about eight miles average per day. But this was then the land of promise, as California has since been. In July of that year, the Winnebago war commenced. Much alarm was spread over the country, and the people erected forts and block houses for defense, abandoning all other employments for the time. Col. Henry Dodge led a company of miners against the Indians, at their town on Rock River. The village, however, was found deserted, and they returned after taking one lad prisoner.

We crossed over the Mississippi at this time, swimming our horses by the side of a canoe. It was the first flow, or the first tide of civilization on this western shore. There was not a white settler north of the Des Moines, and west of the Mississippi, to Astoria, on the Columbia River, with the exception of Indian traders. The Indians had all along guarded this mining district with scrupulous care. They would not allow the white people to visit the place, even to look at the old grass-grown diggings of Dubuque, which were known to exist here, much less would they permit mining to be done, or settlements to be made.

The country had just been abandoned by the red men, their moccasins tracks were yet fresh in the prairie trails along which the retiring race had fled on their mysterious mission westward, and the decaying embers were yet cooling on their deserted hearths within their now lonely and silent wigwams. Where Dubuque now stands, cornfields stretched along the bluffs, up the ravines and the Coule valley, and a thousand acres of level land skirting the shore, was covered with tall grass, as a field of waving grain. But the stalks of the corn were of the last year's growth, the ears had been plucked, and they were withered and blighted left standing alone mournful representatives of the vanished race. A large village was then standing at the mouth of Catfish Creek, silent, solitary, deserted—nothing remained to greet us, but the mystic shadows of the past. About seventy buildings, constructed with poles and the bark of trees, remained to tell of those who had so recently inhabited them. Their council house, though rude, was ample in its dimensions, and contained a great number of furnaces, in which kettles had been placed to prepare the feasts of peace or war. But their council fires had gone out. On the inner surface of the bark there were paintings done with considerable artistic skill, representing the buffalo, elk, bear, panther, and other animals of the chase; also their wild sports on the prairie, and even their feats in wars, where chief meets chief and warriors mix in bloody fray. Thus was retained a rude record of their national history. It was burned down in the summer of 1830, by some visitors in a spirit of vandalism, much to the regret of the new settlers.

When the Indians mined, which was on special occasions, there were often fifty or a hundred boys and squaws at work on one vein. They would dig down a square hole, covering the entire width of the mine, leaving one side not perpendicular, but at an angle of about forty-five degrees, then with deer skin sacks attached to a bark rope they would haul out along the inclining side of the shaft the rock and ore. Their mode of smelting was by digging into a bank slightly, then put up flat rocks in a funnel shape, and place the ore within, mixed with wood; this all burnt together, and the lead would trickle down into a small excavation in the earth, of any shape they desired, and slowly cool and become fit for exportation.

The lead manufactured here in early times, by Dubuque and the natives, found its way to St. Louis, Chicago, Mackinaw, and other trading ports, and some even into the Indian rifle in the war of 1812, in the woods of Indiana and Michigan. The mode of smelting adopted at first, by the white people, was by building a furnace somewhat like two large chimney places, set in a bank of earth, leaving an aperture in the lower side, for a circulation of air. In these, large logs of wood were placed like back-logs, back-sticks and fore-sticks all fitting together, then the mineral was placed on the logs, covered with finer wood, and the whole set on fire. Thus, in twenty-four hours, the lead would be extracted and run into cast-iron molds. About fifty per cent. of lead was obtained in this way, leaving scoria and a waste of small pieces of ore to be run over in another furnace differently constructed. In this last process, about fifteen per cent. was added to the first product. Now, by the improved mode, of blast furnaces, about eighty-five per cent. is

obtained, showing that the ore is nearly pure, except only the combination of sulphur with it, which is the inflammable material, and assists in the process of separation.

As I have said, the speaker and an elder brother, in June of 1827, crossed the Mississippi in a canoe, swimming their horses by its side, landed for the first time on the western bank of the stream, and stood upon the soil of this unknown land. Soon after this, a number of miners crossed over the river, and possessed themselves of these lands, thus left vacant; their mining operations proved eminently successful.

About the fourth of July, Zachary Taylor, then commanding at Prairie du Chien, called upon the miners, in a formal and public manner, forbade their settlement, and ordered them to recross the river. This land was not yet purchased of the Indians, and, of course, came under the control of the war department. Captain Taylor, as he was then called, told the miners that it was his duty as a government officer, to protect the lands; that such were the treaty stipulations, and that they must be off in one week. They declined doing this, telling the captain that he must surrender this time. They urged that they had occupied a vacant country, had struck some valuable lodes, that the land would soon be purchased, and that they intended to maintain possession; to which Zachary Taylor replied, "*We shall see to that, my boys.*"

Accordingly a detachment of United States troops was dispatched, with orders to make the miners at Dubuque walk Spanish. Anticipating their arrival, they had taken themselves off, for at that early day they believed that "rough" would be "ready" at the appointed time. The miners were anxiously peering from the high bluffs on the east side of the river as the steamer came in sight bringing the soldiers, who were landed on the west shore. Three of the men, who had lingered too long, were taken prisoners. They were, however, soon released, or rather took themselves off. It is said that one of them, a large, fat man, by the name of *Lemons*, made his escape from the soldiers while at Galena, and taking the course of the high prairie ridge leading northerly, exhibited such astonishing speed, that the race has long been celebrated among the miners, as the greatest feat ever performed in the diggings.

The military force was stationed permanently at Dubuque, and the Indians, venturing back to the place, sure of safety and protection against their inveterate enemy, the Sioux, and other intruders, were encouraged to mine upon the lodes and prospects which the white people had discovered. From one mine alone the Indians obtained more than a million pounds of ore, in which they were assisted by the traders and settlers along the river, with provisions, implements, and teams. While the discoverers, those who had opened these mines again, after they were abandoned by them and the Spanish miners more than twenty years, were compelled to look across the water and see the fruits of their industry and enterprise consumed by the Indians. We lost, in this manner, more than twenty thousand dollars worth of mineral, which was taken from one lode by them.

In September, 1832, a treaty was held at Rack Island, by General Scott and others, on the part of the government, and the Black Hawk purchase was agreed to. It included all the country bordering on the west side of the Mississippi River, comprising the eastern portion of our state. About this time, those who felt an interest in the mines of Dubuque, returned to take possession of their former discoveries.

Many fine lodes and prospects were discovered, and considerable lead manufactured up to about January 25, 1833. I could here name many others who settled during this fall: Thomas McCraney, Whitesides, Camps, Hurd, Riley, Thomas Kelly, etc. In fact there were more than two hundred allured here by the flattering prospects of the country during this fall. But, in January, the troops were again sent down from Prairie du Chien, and removed the settlers the second time, merely because the treaty by which the land was acquired had not been ratified by the United States senate, a formal act that every one knew would take place at the earliest opportunity. This was a foolish policy on the part of the government, and operated peculiarly hard upon the new settlers, who were thus obliged to leave their cabins in the cold winter of 1832-3, and their business also until spring.

In June, 1833, Mr. John P. Sheldon, arrived with a commission from the department at Washington, as superintendent of the mines, the military force having been previously withdrawn, and the treaty confirmed. He proceeded to grant written permits to miners, and licenses to smelters. These permits entitled the holder to the privilege of staking off two hundred yards square of land wherever he chose, if not occupied by others, and have peaceful possession, by delivering his mineral to a licensed smelter, while the smelter was required to give a bond to the agent, conditioned to pay, for the use of the government, a fixed per centage of all the lead he manufactured. Mr. Sheldon continued to act in this capacity only about one year, for he could not be the instrument of enforcing this unjust and unwise policy. He saw that these men, like all other pioneers, who, by their enterprise were opening up a new country, and fitting it for the homes of those who follow their footsteps, should be left, by a wise and judicious system, to the enjoyment of their hard earnings. The hidden wealth of the earth, its pine forests and surface productions, should alike be offered freely to all those who penetrate the wilderness, and thus lay the foundation of future societies and states.

It has been the policy of our government, at various times, to exact rent for all mineral, or pine lumber, taken from the public lands; which policy is wrong and should be forever abandoned; for the early settlers have privations and hardships enough, without encountering the opposition of their own government, especially these miners, many of whom had labored for years on the frontiers, cut off from the enjoyments of home and all the endearments of domestic life. Your speaker was, himself, one of these, being thrown in early life upon the crest of the wave of western emigration, often beyond the furthest bounds of civilization, and not unfrequently amid the tragical scenes of border strife. Twenty-three years he labored, mostly in the mines, in different capacities, and during about half that period he has toiled in the deep, narrow caves and crevices, in the cold, damp ground, working upon his knees, sometimes in the water, and living like many other miners in "Bachelor's Hall," cooking his own food, and feeling secluded from society and far from the circle and associations of youthful friendship. Under such privations, he felt the demand of a heavy tax, by the government, to be oppressive indeed, and he would be wanting in consistency and spirit, if he had not, on all proper occasions, protested against a system that seems much more regal than republican, and which degrades the western pioneer to the condition of a tenant at will of the general government.

In 1833-4, the town of Dubuque continued to improve. It now first received its name by a public meeting held for that purpose, and began to assume the appearance of a prosperous business place.

At this time there were but very few men in the whole country who did not indulge in drinking and gambling. "Poker" and "brag" were games of common pastime, while the betting often ran up to hundreds of dollars in a single sitting. It pervaded all classes; the merchants and other passengers, to and from St. Louis, while on the steamboats occupied their time chiefly in this way, and it was considered no disgrace to gamble. Balls and parties were also common, and it was not an unfrequent occurrence for one to treat his partner in the dance at the bar, if he did not, he generally performed that delicate and flattering attention to himself. The Sabbath was regarded as a holiday, and vice and immorality were prevalent in every form. Yet amidst all this there were occasional gleams of moral sunshine breaking through the clouds of dissipation, and a brighter future lay before us. Upon the establishing of courts here, first under the jurisdiction of Michigan, then under that of Wisconsin Territory, matters assumed a more peaceful and quiet aspect.

But there were even then occasions of turbulence and bloodshed, in quarrels about lands and claims. Mr. Woodbury Massey lost his life in one of these difficulties. There were no courts of competent jurisdiction to try cases of crime, or rights to property. A long time intervened between the withdrawal of the government protection and the establishment of civil laws by local authority.

No survey of the public lands had yet been made, and in the transition from the old to the new state of things, misunderstandings naturally arose. Under the government rules and regulations for the control of the mines, it was necessary to

work and have mining tools almost continually on the land claimed, in order to secure possession; under the new order of things there were no uniform customs prevailing, regarding possession of property; each man formed his own standard and was governed by his own opinions. It was not surprising, then, that difficulties should arise. He who has passed through all the scenes and trials incident to the settlement of a new country, will not readily seek another distant frontier as a home.

Woodbury Massey was the eldest of several brothers and a sister, all left orphans in early life. Himself and family were members and the chief founders of the first Methodist Church erected in this city; a man of fine education, polite and amiable in his disposition, one of our first merchants, and possessing a large share of popular favor. He was enterprising in business, and upright in all his dealings. Had he lived, he would no doubt have proved a main pillar and support in our young community. But in an evil hour he became the purchaser of a lot or lode, called the Irish lot, near where Mr. McKenzie now lives.

It appeared that a Mr. Smith, father and son, had some claim on this lot or lode. They were the exact opposite to Mr. Massey, in character and disposition. A suit before a magistrate grew out of this claim, and the jury decided the property to belong to Mr. Massey. It being a case of forcible entry and detainer, the sheriff, as was his duty, went with the latter to put him again in possession of the premises.

When they arrived upon the ground, the two Smiths, being secreted among the diggings, rose up suddenly, and firing their guns in quick succession, Mr. Massey was shot through the heart. His family, living near by, saw him fall, thus early cut down in the prime of his life and usefulness, a victim to the unsettled state of the times, and the ungoverned passions of turbulent men. The perpetrators of this deed were arrested and held in confinement until the session of the circuit court, at Mineral Point, Judge Irving presiding. Upon the trial, the counsel for the defense objected to the jurisdiction of the court, which was sustained by the judge, and accordingly the prisoners were discharged and let loose upon society. They, however, left this part of the country for a time.

One of the younger brothers of Mr. Massey, highly exasperated by this transaction, that no trial could be obtained for such offenders, had determined, it seems, that should the elder Smith ever come in his way, he would take the punishment for the murder of his brother into his own hands. One day, while sitting in his shop at Galena, he chanced to see Smith walking the public streets of the place, when, instantly snatching a pistol and hastening in the direction, he fired upon him with fatal aim. Thus Smith paid the forfeit of his life by intruding again among the friends of the murdered man, and in the community which had witnessed the scenes of his violence.

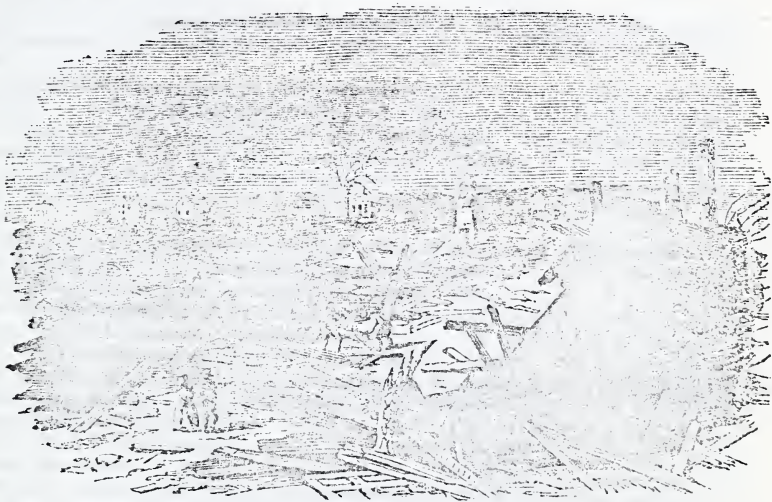
For this act of the younger brother, there seems to have been the broadest charity manifested. He was never tried, or even arrested, and still lives in the country, a quiet man, and greatly respected by all who know him.

The death of the father, of course, soon brought the younger Smith to the mines. It was understood privately that he determined to shoot one or the other of the surviving brothers at the very first opportunity. He was known to be an excellent shot with a pistol, of imperious disposition and rash temper. These rumors finally reached the ears of the fair haired, blue eyed sister, who was thus made to believe that he would carry his threats into execution. She was just verging into womanhood, with fresh susceptibilities, and all of her deep affections awakened by the surrounding difficulties of the family. One day, without consulting others, she determined, by a wild and daring adventure, to cut off all chances of danger in that direction. Disguising herself for the occasion, and taking a lad along to point out the person she sought, having never seen him herself, she went into the street. Passing a store by the way side, the boy saw Smith and designated him from the other gentlemen in the room by his clothing. On seeing him thus surrounded by other men, one would suppose that her nerves would lose their wonted firmness. He was well armed and resolute in character, this she knew; yet stepping in amidst them all, in a voice tremulous with emotion and ominous in its tones, she exclaimed, "If you are Smith, defend yourself." In an instant, as he arose, she

pointed a pistol at his breast and fired; he fell, and she retired as suddenly as she appeared. It was all done so quickly, and seemed so awful that the spectators stood, bewildered at the tragical scene, until it was too late to prevent the disaster.

It so happened that Mr. Smith had, at the time, a large wallet filled with papers in his breast pocket. The ball striking about its center did not of course penetrate all of the folded leaves, and thus providentially his life was spared.

Smith, soon recovering from the stunning effects, rushed into the street to meet his assailant; but she had fled and found shelter at the house of Mr. Johnson, a substantial merchant of the town, and was subsequently sent away, by her friends here, to some relatives in Illinois, where she was afterward married to a Mr. Williamson, formerly of this place. Her name, Louisa, has been given to one of the counties in our State. Smith lived several years, but the wounds probably hastened his death. She is also dead, and it is to be hoped that God's mercy has followed them beyond earth's rude strifes, and that they dwell in peace in a purer and better world.



Ruins of Camanche, Clinton county.

After the Great Tornado of June 3, 1860. Engraved from a view taken by photograph.

The west has, at various periods of its history, been subject to severe tornadoes, which have carried ruin and devastation in their course. The most terrible ever known, was that which swept over eastern Iowa and western Illinois, on the evening of Sunday, June 3, 1860. It commenced about five miles beyond Cedar Rapids, in Linn county, Iowa, and stopped near Elgin, Illinois, thus traversing a distance of nearly 200 miles. It varied in width from half a mile to two miles. It was of the nature of a whirlwind, or as some eye witnesses aver of two whirlwinds, moving in the same direction and near each other, which in shape resembled a funnel. The larger villages between Cedar Rapids and the Mississippi, were out of the course of this fearful destroyer; but much property was damaged, and more than fifty lives lost before reaching the river. The town of Camanche, on the Mississippi, in Clinton county, about 70 miles below Dubuque, was utterly destroyed, and New Albany, opposite it on the Illinois side, nearly ruined. It was stated in the

prints of the time, that, by this terrible calamity, 2,500 persons had been rendered houseless and homeless, and about 400 killed and wounded. The account of this event is thus given in the *Fulton Courier*:

The storm reached Camanche at 7.30 P.M., with a hollow, rumbling noise heralding its approach, which sounded like a heavy train of cars passing over a bridge. Moving with the velocity of lightning, it struck the devoted town, and the fearful work of havoc commenced. The scene that followed, as given by eye witnesses, can neither be imagined nor described. Amidst the roar of the tempest, the rustling of the wind, the reverberating peals of thunder, the vivid flashes of lightning, the pelting of the rain, the crash of falling buildings, the agonizing shrieks of terror-stricken women and children, the bewildered attempts to escape, and the moans of the dying, but little opportunity was left to observe the general appearance of the blow.

Parents caught their children in their arms and rushed frantic for any place that seemed to promise safety. Many found refuge in cellars, which to others proved graves. So sudden was the shock that many in the upper parts of buildings were left no time to flee to other parts.

To go outside was as hazardous as to remain within. The turbulent air was filled with fragments of lumber, furniture, and trees, flying in every direction, with the force of cannon balls.

Amidst such intense excitement, attended with such fatal consequences, moments seem years. But from statements, that beyond doubt are correct, the storm did not rage less than two and a half, nor more than five minutes. It would seem impossible, on looking at the devastation, to suppose it the work of so short a time. Darkness immediately closed over the scene, and left a pall over the town only equaled by the darker gloom that draped the hearts of the survivors of the disaster.

At Albany, heavy warehouses were lifted entire, and removed some considerable distance, strong brick and stone buildings entirely demolished, while the lighter frame dwelling houses were, in most cases, entirely swept away. We could not estimate the whole number of buildings injured, but could learn of not over three houses in the whole town that were not more or less damaged—most of them destroyed. The ground was strewn with fragments of boards. The hotel kept by Captain Barnes was not moved from its foundation, but part of the roof and inside partitions were carried away. The brick (Presbyterian) church was leveled to the ground, and the Congregational much injured. The brick and stone houses seemed to afford but little more protection than the frame, and when they fell gave, of course, less chance of escape. But one place of business (Mr. Pease's) was left in a condition to use. The buildings, household furniture, provisions, and everything in fact, in most instances, were swept beyond the reach of recovery. The ferry-boat was lifted from the water and laid upon the shore. Cattle, horses, and hogs, were killed or driven away by the irresistible element. The loss of life, however, was far less than could have been expected. But five persons were killed, and perhaps fifty or sixty injured.

Camanche was almost completely destroyed. A very few buildings were, as if by miracle, left standing, but even these were more or less injured. The ground was covered with splinters, boards, furniture, etc., completely shivered to pieces. Nothing perfect or whole was to be seen, but everything looked as though it had been riven by lightning. The larger trees were blown down: while on the smaller ones that would yield to the wind, were to be seen tattered pieces of clothing, carpets, pillows, and even mattresses, nearly torn to shreds. The river below was covered with marks of the storm, and much property was lost by being swept into the water. The general appearance of the ground was much like the traces left by a torrent where flood-wood is left lying in its path. Where buildings once stood is now a mass of unsightly ruins. It is with difficulty that the lines of the former streets can be traced. Frame houses were swept away or turned into every conceivable variety of positions. Dead animals were left floating in the river or lying among the ruins. The feathers on the poultry were even stripped from their bodies. Everything was so completely scattered and destroyed that it was useless

to attempt to recover anything, and the citizens could only sit down in despair. Until 12 M. of Monday, the work of exhuming the bodies from the fallen ruins was still progressing. In one room that we visited, the bodies of children and females were lying (ten or twelve in number), clothed in their white winding sheets. It was a sight that we pray may never again be ours to witness. The little children, in particular, had but few face injuries, and lay as if sleeping.

In all, thirty-eight persons were reported missing at Camanche, and thirty-two bodies have been found. About eighty were reported as wounded, some of whom have since died. Information has been received which furnishes us with reliable accounts of 139 deaths caused by the tornado along the line of the Iowa and Nebraska road, including Camanche. On the Illinois side of the river the loss of life has not been quite so great, but we think we are safe in putting the total number of killed at 175. The wounded are by far more numerous, while the loss of property can not be definitely estimated. We hear of 150 cattle in one yard in Iowa that were all destroyed. Fairs houses, fences, crops, railroad cars, and all property that fell in the path of the tornado, were left in total ruin. There were hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of property destroyed, much of which will never be reported.

The tornado commenced in Linn county, Iowa, and stopped, as near as we can learn, in the vicinity of Elgin, Illinois. It, of course, would carry objects sometimes in opposite directions, moving as it did with the motion of a whirlwind. We saw one house that had been lifted from its foundation, and carried two hundred feet in a course directly contrary to the regular course of the tornado.

The escapes in all the places where the storm passed, were often truly miraculous. In Albany, Mr. Slaymaker had repaired to the church for the purpose of ringing the bell for worship, but seeing the appearance of a heavy rain approaching, concluded not to ring it. Had the congregation been called together it would have been certain death to all, as the walls of the church, being built of brick, fell on the inside. We saw a small house that had been carried several rods with three persons in it, and set down without damage to the house or inmates. A little daughter of Mr. Swett was lying on a bed, and was blown with it twenty rods into a grove, from whence it came unharmed, calling for its mother. An infant son of Mrs. Joseph Riley was buried beneath her, and it is thought that her own weight upon it was the cause of its death. One family took refuge in a meal chest, which, fortunately, proved strong enough to protect them from a mass of rubbish that covered them. Mrs. Oliver McMahan fell in a place where the floor of the first story had been previously partly broken, producing a sag or bend. The joists fell over her, but were long enough to reach over the bend, and thus saved her life. Mr. Effner had at one time been safely secure in his cellar, but going up for something to shield his child from the cold, was killed instantly. We saw two children who were killed in the arms of their mothers. At Camanche, the first story of a hardware store, with its contents, was carried into the river and lost, while the upper part of the building dropped down square upon the foundation as though placed there by mechanics. A child was blown from fifteen miles west of Camanche to that place and landed uninjured. One man in Iowa was taken up 200 feet. A family on a farm took refuge in a "potato hole," where they remained secure; but the house they left was completely demolished. Pieces of boards were picked up eight and ten miles from Albany, in both north and south directions. A wagon was lifted into the air, broken to pieces, and the tire of one of the wheels twisted out of all shape. Nine freight cars, standing on the track at Lisbon, were blown some distance from the place they were standing. The tornado raised immediately over the house of Mr. Minta, in Garden Plain, and descended to strike the next house beyond. We noticed that those living in frame houses met with less loss of life than the inmates of brick or stone houses.

A passenger from the west informs us that a small boy was blown across Cedar River, and his mangled body left in the forks of a tree. In one family all that was left were three little girls, the father and mother and two children having been instantly killed. We saw where a fence board had been forced clear through the side of a house, endwise, and hundreds of shingles had forced themselves clear through the clapboards of a house.

Another eye witness says: A chimney, weighing about two tons, was broken off at its junction with the roof lifted into the air, and hurled down into the front yard, burying itself in the ground a depth of three feet, without breaking or cracking a single brick. A light pine shingle was driven from the outside through the clapboards, lath and plaster, and projects two inches from the inside wall of a dwelling house. No other known force could have accomplished this. A common trowel, such as is used by masons, was driven through a pine knot in the side of a barn, projecting full two inches. In one spot was found a large pile of book covers, every leaf from which was gone, and twisted into a thousand shapes. Leaves were stripped of their tissue, leaving the fibers clean and bare as if a botanist had nearly picked it off. Tree trunks were twisted several times round until they were broken off. The Millard House, a three story brick structure, fronting north, was lifted up from its foundation and turned completely round, so that the front door faced the south. It then collapsed, and seemed to fall outwardly as if in a vacuum, and, strange to relate, out of seventeen persons in the house, only two were killed. One house upon the bank was lifted from its foundation and whirled into the river, crushing as it fell and drowning three persons, the inmates.

A piano was taken out of a house in the center of the town, and carried some distance to the river bank without breaking it.

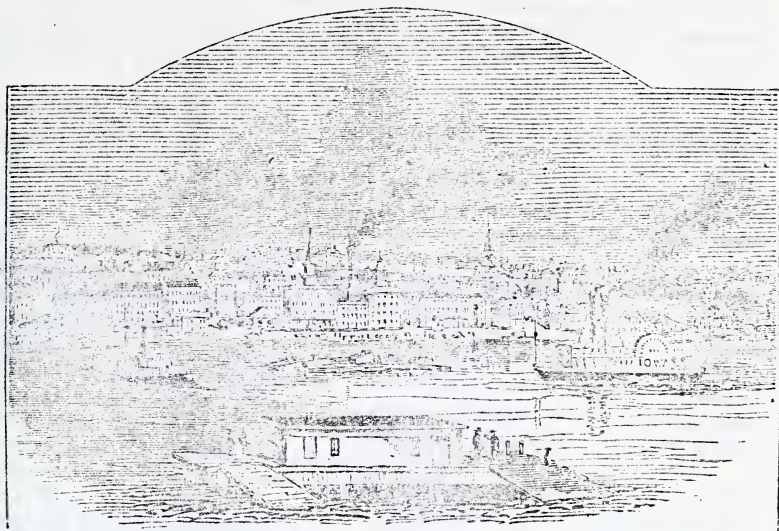
The effects upon some of the houses near Camanche, which were in the outer edge of the tornado, were very curious. Upon some roofs the shingles were stripped off in fanciful shapes, a bare spot upon one roof exactly resembling a figure 8. Some roofs were entirely unshingled, and in some cases every clapboard was torn off. The sides of some houses were literally perforated with boards, splintered timbers and sharp stakes. In some parts of Camanche, where houses stood thickly clustered together, there is not a vestige of one left. Another tract of about forty acres is covered with splinters about two feet in length. The lower stories of some houses were blown out entirely, leaving the upper story upon the ground. The town is entirely ruined, and we do not see how it can ever be rebuilt. There are whole blocks of lots that are vacant entirely, with nothing but the cellar to indicate that a house ever stood there.

The whole atmosphere around the place is sickening, and a stench is pervading the whole path of the storm that is almost impossible to endure.

DAVENPORT, a flourishing city, the county seat of Scott, is beautifully situated on the right bank of the Mississippi, at the foot of the upper rapids, opposite the town of Rock Island, with which it is connected by a most magnificent railroad bridge, the first ever built over the Mississippi. The great railroad running through the heart of the state, and designed to connect the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers, has its eastern terminus at Davenport. The city is 330 miles above St. Louis, and 100 below Galena. The rapids extend 20 miles above this place, and the navigation of the river is somewhat obstructed by them during the time of low water. The city is built on ground which rises gradually from the water, with a chain of rounded hills in the back ground. Pop. 1860, 11,268.

The city derived its name from Col. George Davenport, who was born in England, in 1783. He came to this country when a young man, entered the U. S. army as sergeant, and saw considerable service, on the frontier, in the war of 1812. After the war, he settled on Rock Island, opposite this town, and engaged in trading with the Indians. That vicinity was densely settled by them. The village of Black Hawk was there in the forks of Rock River and the Mississippi. He carried on the fur trade very extensively for many years, establishing trading posts at various points. On the 4th of July, 1845, a band of robbers entered his beautiful residence in the middle of the day, in the absence of his family, and in robbing, accidentally

shot him. He died the same night. All of the murderers were taken, three were hung and two escaped. Mr. Davenport was of a very free and generous disposition, jovial and fond of company. Wherever he went a crowd assembled around him to listen to his anecdotes and stories. He never sued



Southern view of Davenport, from the Rock Island Ferry.

The Steamboat Landing and Flouring Mill is seen in the central part. The Railroad Depot and A. LeClaire's residence, on an elevation in the distance, on the right. The Iowa College building on the left.

any one in his life, and could not bear to see any one in distress without trying to relieve them. The biographer of Col. Davenport gives these incidents:

During the Black Hawk war Mr. Davenport received a commission from Gov. Reynolds, appointing him acting quartermaster general, with the rank of colonel. In the latter part of the summer of 1832, the cholera broke out among the troops on the island, and raged fearfully for about ten days; one hundred died out of a population of four hundred; every person was dreadfully alarmed. An incident occurred during this time which will show the state of feeling. Mr. Davenport, Mr. LeClaire, and a young officer were standing together in front of the store one morning. The officer had been giving them an account of the number of deaths and new cases, when an orderly came up to them with a message from Gen. Scott to Mr. LeClaire, requesting him to come down to the fort as soon as possible. Mr. LeClaire looked at Mr. Davenport to know what excuse to make. Mr. Davenport, after a moment, replied to the orderly to tell Gen. Scott that Mr. LeClaire could not come, as he was quite sick. The officer and orderly laughed heartily at Mr. Davenport and Mr. LeClaire being so much alarmed; but next morning the first news they received from the fort, was, that these two men were dead.

At the time the cholera broke out at Fort Armstrong, there were two Fox chiefs confined in the guard-house for killing the Menomones at Prairie du Chien, and had been given up by their nation as the leaders, on the demand of our government, and were awaiting their trial. Mr. Davenport interceded for them with the commanding officer, to let them out of their prison, and give them the range of the island, with a promise that they should be forthcoming when they were wanted. The Indians were released, and they pledged their word not to leave the island

until permitted to do so by the proper authorities. During all the time the fearful epidemic raged on the island, and every person was fleeing from it that could get away, these two chiefs remained on the island, hunting and fishing, and when the sickness had subsided, they presented themselves at the fort to await their trial, thus showing how binding a pledge of this kind was with this tribe of Indians. Mr. Davenport, for many years, was in the habit of crediting the chiefs of the different villages for from fifty to sixty thousand dollars worth of goods annually, having nothing but their word pledged for the payment of them, which they always faithfully performed.

The following extracts relative to the early history of Davenport, are from Wilkie's History of the city:

"In the year 1833, there were one or two claims made upon the lands now occupied by the lower part of the city. The claim upon which the city was first laid out was contended for by a Dr. Spencer and a Mr. McCloud. The matter was finally settled by Antoine LeClaire buying them both out: giving them \$150. . . . Having fenced in this portion, Mr. LeClaire cultivated it until it was sold to a company in 1835. In the fall of this year, a company was formed for the purchasing and laying out a town site. They met at the house of Col. Davenport, on Rock Island, to discuss the matter. The following persons were present: Maj. Wm. Gordon, Antoine LeClaire, Col. Geo. Davenport, Maj. Thos. Smith, Alex. McGregor, Levi S. Colton, and Philip Hambaugh. These gentlemen, with Capt. James May, then in Pittsburgh, composed the company which secured the site. . . .

In the spring of the next year, the site was surveyed and laid out by Maj. Gordon, U. S. surveyor, and one of the stockholders. The cost of the entire site was \$2,000 or \$250 per share. In May the lots were offered at auction. A steamboat came up from St. Louis, laden with passengers to attend the sale, which continued for two days. Some 50 or 60 lots only were sold, mostly to St. Louis speculators, at from \$300 to \$600 each. The remaining portion of the site was divided among the proprietors. The emigration this year was small, only some half dozen families coming in. The first tavern was put up this year and opened by Edward Powers, on the corner of Front and Ripley-streets. It was built by Messrs. Davenport and LeClaire, and was called "*Davenport Hotel*." A log shanty drinking saloon was also put up, which stood on Front-street, below the Western-avenue. It was long a favorite resort of the politician and thirsty. . . .

James Mackintosh opened the first store, and commenced business in a log house near the U. S. House, corner of Ripley and Third-streets. . . . Lumber at that time was brought from Cincinnati, and almost everything else from a distance. Flour at \$16 per barrel; pork at 16 cents per pound, were brought from that city. Corn was imported from Wabash River, and brought \$2 per bushel. . . . The ferry dates its existence from this year—it being a flat bottomed craft, technically called a "mud-boat." This, in 1841, was superseded by a horse-boat, which in time gave way to steam. . . .

The first child born in Davenport, was in 1841, a son of L. S. Colton. . . . The first law office was opened by A. McGregor. The first religious discourse was delivered by Rev. Mr. Gavitt, a Methodist, at the house of D. C. Eldridge. Preaching also from an Episcopalian the same spring. Religious services were held occasionally, in which a priest from Galena officiated. . . . The pioneer ball was held at Mr. LeClaire's, Jan. 8, 1836. Some forty couples were present, consisting of frontier men, officers from the island, and others. The music was furnished by fiddles, from which

no contemptible strains were occasionally drawn by Mr. LeClaire himself. . . The party danced till sunrise, then broke up—the gentlemen being, as a general thing, as genial as all the “punches” they could possibly contain, would make them.

In the summer of 1836, Mr. A. LeClaire was appointed postmaster. Mails came once a week from the east, and once in two weeks from Dubuque. The postmaster used to carry the mail across the river in his pocket, and the per centage for the first three months was *seventy-five cents*. In September, a treaty was held at East Davenport, between Gov. Dodge, U. S. commissioner, and the Sacs and Foxes. The object of the treaty was to secure possession of the land bordering on the Iowa River, and known as “Keokuk’s Reserve.” About one thousand chiefs and warriors were present, and were encamped during the time just above Renwick’s mill. . . . This was the last treaty ever held in this vicinity. There were seven houses at the close of this year. There was a frame dwelling partly finished and owned by a Mr. Shields. It has been since known as the “Billion House” (*of which a gentleman, since governor of the state, was once hostler*). The year (1836) closed with a population of less than one hundred. Stephenson (now Rock Island) which had been laid out in 1834, had at this time a population of nearly five hundred.

The first duel “on record” in Iowa, was fought, in the spring of 1837, between two Winnebago Indians. These young men, in a carousal at Stephenson, commenced quarreling, and finally resorted to the code of honor. One had a shot gun, the other a rifle. On the Willow Island, below the city, at the required distance they fired at each other. The one with the shot gun fell, and was buried not far from the graveyard below the city. The survivor fled to his home in the Rock River country. The friends and relations of the slain clamored for the blood of the slayer, and the *sister* of the latter went for the survivor. She found him—entreated him to come back to Rock Island and be killed, to appease the wrathful manes of the deceased. He came—in a canoe paddled by his own sister—singing his death song. A shallow grave was dug, and kneeling upon its brink, his body tumbled into it, and his death song was hushed, as the greedy knives of the executioners drank the blood of his brave heart.

Dr. A. E. Donaldson, from Pennsylvania, came in July, 1837, and was, it is stated, the first regular physician. The religious services, for this year, and for a year or two afterward, were held in a house belonging to D. C. Eldridge. Clergymen of various denominations officiated. In 1838, during the summer, the first brick house was erected by D. C. Eldridge, standing on the S.E. corner of Main and Third-streets. Nearly at the same time, the brick building now used by the Sisters, in Catholic block, was completed as a church. A long controversy between Rockingham and Davenport, respecting the location of the county-seat, was terminated in favor of the latter, in 1840, by the citizens of Davenport agreeing to construct the court house and jail, free of expense to the county.

The celebrated “*Missouri War*” is ascribed to about this date. It arose from a dispute in regard to boundary—two lines having been run. The northern one cut off a strip of Iowa some six or eight miles in width, and from this portion Missouri endeavored to collect taxes. The inhabitants refused to pay them, and the Missouri authorities endeavored, by sending a sheriff, to enforce payment. A fight ensued, and an Iowan was killed, and several taken prisoners. The news spread along the river counties, and created intense excitement. War was supposed to be impending, or to have actually begun.

Col. Dodge, an individual somewhat noted as the one who, in connection with Theller, had been imprisoned by the Canadian authorities for a participation in the “Patriot War,” had lately arrived here, after breaking jail in Canada. His arrival was opportune—a call for volunteers to march against Missouri was circulated, and was responded to by some three hundred men, who made Davenport their rendezvous on the proposed day of marching. A motley crowd was it! Arms were of every kind imaginable, from pitchforks to blunderbusses, and Queen Anne muskets. One of the colonels were a common rusty grass scythe for a sword, while Capt. Higginson, of company A, had been fortunate enough to find an old

sword that an Indian had pawned for whisky, which he elegantly belted around him with a heavy log chain.

The parade ground was in front of the ground now occupied by the Scott House. Refreshments were plenty, and "steam" was being rapidly developed for a start, when word came that peace was restored—Missouri having resigned her claim to the disputed ground. The army was immediately disbanded, in a style that would do honor to the palmiest revels of Bacchus. Speeches were made, toasts drunk, and a host of maneuvers, not in the military code, were performed, to the great amusement of all. Some, in the excess of patriotism and whisky, started on alone to Missouri, but lay down in the road before traveling far, and slept away their valor.

St. Anthony's Church, the first erected, was dedicated May 23, 1839, by Rt. Rev. Bishop Loras, of Dubuque. The Catholic Advocate thus states, "Mr. Antoine LeClaire, a wealthy Frenchman, and a zealous and exemplary Christian, in partnership with Mr. Davenport, has granted to the Catholic congregation, in the very center of the town, a whole square, including ten lots, erecting, partly at his own expense, a fine brick church with a school room attached." The Rev. Mr. Pelamourgues, who first assumed charge of the church, still retains it.

The First Presbyterian Church was established in the spring of 1838, pastor, James D. Mason; the Davenport Congregational Church was organized July 30, 1839, by Rev. Albert Hale; their present church building was erected in 1844. The first regular services of the Protestant Episcopal Church were commenced here Oct. 14, 1841, by Rev. Z. H. Goldsmith. The corner stone of the present edifice of Trinity Church was laid, by Bishop Kemper, May 5, 1852. The Methodist Episcopal Church was established June 1, 1842; the First Baptist Church was established in 1839, N. S. Bastion, pastor; the German Congregation was established July 19, 1857, A. Frowein, pastor; "Church of Christ," or Disciples Church established July 28, 1839.

The first newspaper was the "Iowa Sun and Davenport and Rock Island News," issued in Aug., 1838, by Alfred Sanders. It was continued till 1841, when it was succeeded by the "Davenport Weekly Gazette." The "Weekly Banner" was started in 1848, by A. Montgomery; in 1855, it was bought by Messrs. Hildreth, Richardson & West, and was changed to the "Iowa State Democrat." The "Evening News," daily and weekly, was started by Harrington & Wilkie, Sept., 1856. The "Der Demokrat" (German) was established, by T. Guelich, in 1851.

Bellevue, the capital of Jackson county, is on the Mississippi, 12 miles below Galena. It is one of the oldest towns in the state, having been first settled in 1836, by J. D. Bell. The location being a beautiful one, had long been a favorite spot with the Indians. The population in 1860 was about 1,500.

The following interesting narrative of some incidents which took place here in the early settlement of the place is given to us by Wm. A. Warren Esq. He was the sheriff in command of the posse of citizens, some of whom it will be seen lost their lives in their efforts to restore law and order.

In the year 1836, was organized a band of horse-thieves, counterfeiters, and highway robbers, having their head-quarters near Elk Heart, Michigan, and extending their ramifications in all directions from that point, many hundred miles. The Rock River valley, Illinois, and the settled portions of what is now Iowa, were the chief points of their operations, although the band extended through Kentucky, Missouri, and even to the Cherokee Nation.

Their organization was complete. They had their pass words, and other means of recognition. No great master spirit controlled the whole organization, as is usually the case in criminal associations of that nature. The leaders were those whose education rendered them superior to the instincts of the half savage settlers with whom they were associated.

Their method of doing business, and escaping detection, was as follows: B'e

band, in Iowa, would "spot" certain horses and other "plunder," and arrange to make a foray on some particular night. A., in Missouri, having obtained the knowledge of this, would start his band on a marauding expedition the same night. But those who were to do the plundering would make a feint to go north or south on a trading expedition, a day or two before the time fixed upon, and returning at night, would be carefully concealed until the proper time, when they would sally forth on the expedition in earnest. The two bands then meeting half way, would exchange the stolen property, and returning, dispose of the plunder, perhaps to the very persons whom they had robbed a few nights before.



Storming of the Bellevue Hotel, by the Citizens.

The engraving illustrates a scene in the early history of Bellevue. The hotel of the town was occupied by a band of outlaws, who had been the terror of the whole country for hundreds of miles distant. As they defied the authorities, the citizens were compelled to resort to arms. The stronghold was carried by storm, in which several were slain on each side.

Those of the band who were merely accomplices, were careful to be visiting some honest neighbor on the night of the robbery, and thus avert suspicion from themselves. By this means, it will be seen, that detection was almost impossible, and suspicion unlikely to rest upon the real perpetrators.

The then frontier village of Bellevue, was a central point on this route, and also the headquarters of one of the most numerous and powerful of the bands. Its leader, William Brown, was a man remarkable in many respects. He came to Bellevue in the spring of 1836, and soon after brought out his family and opened a public house, which was destined to become famous in the village history. Brown, physically, was a powerful man, and in education superior to those around him. He possessed a pleasant, kindly address, and was scrupulously honest in his every day's dealings with his neighbors. It is said that none who reposed confidence in him in a business transaction ever regretted it. He was ably seconded by his wife, a woman of about 24 years of age, and of more than ordinary natural capacity. They had but one child, a little girl of some four years of age. Ever ready to assist the destitute, the foremost in public improvements, this family soon became idolized by the rude population of that early day, so that nothing but positive proof finally fastened suspicions of dishonesty upon them. Having, by his

wiles, seduced a larger part of the young men into his band, and being daily reinforced from other quarters, Brown became more bold in his operations, then threw off the mask, and openly boasted of his power and the inability of the authorities to crush him out. It was no idle boast. Fully two thirds of the able bodied men in the settlement were leagued with him. He never participated in passing counterfeit money, stealing horses, etc., but simply planned.

Any man who incurred the enmity of the "gang," was very certain to wake some morning and find his crops destroyed, his horses stolen, and the marks of his cattle having been slaughtered in his own yard; in all probability the hind quarters of his favorite ox would be offered for sale at his own door a few hours thereafter. If one of his gang was arrested, Brown stood ready to defend him, with an argument not now always attainable by the legal profession—he could, at a moment's notice, prove an *alibi*. Thus matters went on, until it became apparent to the honest portion of the community that the crisis had arrived.

As an instance of the boldness which they evinced, now the band had become so powerful, we give an incident of the stealing of a plow from a steamboat. In the spring of 1839, a steamboat landed at Bellerue *to wood*; the boat was crowded with passengers, and the hurricane deck covered with plows. It being a pleasant day, the citizens, old and young, according to custom, had sallied forth to the river side, as the landing of a steamboat was then by no means a daily occurrence. The writer of this, standing near Brown, heard him remark to a man, named Hapgood, and in the presence of numerous citizens, "that, as he (H.) had long wanted to join Brown's party, if he would steal one of those plows, and thus prove his qualifications, he should be admitted to full fellowship." Hapgood agreed to make the trial, and thereupon, to our surprise, as we had supposed the conversation to be merely in jest, he went upon the hurricane deck, and in the presence of the captain, passengers, and citizens on shore, shouldered a plow and marched off the boat and up the levee. When on the boat, Hapgood conversed with the captain for a few minutes, and the captain pointed out to him which plow to take. In a few moments the boat was gone, and Hapgood boasted of the theft. It was supposed that he had bought the plow and paid the captain for it, but the next day, when the boat returned, there was great and anxious inquiry, by the captain, "for the man that took that plow," but he had disappeared, and remained out of sight until the boat was gone. About the same time another bold robbery occurred near Bellevue, the incidents of which so well illustrate the character of these ruffians, that we can not forbear recounting them.

One Collins, a farmer, living about eight miles from town, came in one day and sold Brown a yoke of cattle for \$80. Being a poor judge of money, and knowing Brown's character well, he refused to take anything in payment but specie. On his return home that evening, he placed his money in his chest. About midnight his house was broken open by two men, upon which he sprang from his bed, but was immediately knocked down. His wife coming to his rescue was also knocked down, and both were threatened with instant death if any more disturbance was made. The robbers then possessed themselves of Collins' money and watch and departed. In the morning he made complaint before a justice of the peace, accusing two men in the employment of Brown with the crime. They were arrested and examined. On the trial, Collins and his wife swore positively to the men, and also identified a watch found with them as the one taken. In their possession was found \$80 in gold, the exact amount stolen. A farmer living near Collins, testified that about 11 o'clock, on the night of the robbery, the accused stopped at his house and inquired the way to Collins'. Here the prosecution closed their evidence, and the defense called three witnesses to the stand, among whom was Fox, afterward noted as the murderer of Col. Davenport, all of whom swore positively that, on the night of the robbery, they and the accused played cards from dark till daylight, in Brown's house, eight miles from the scene of the robbery! In the face of the overwhelming testimony adduced by the state, the defendants were discharged!

Another laughable instance, displaying the shrewdness and villainy of these fellows, occurred early in the spring of 1838. Godfrey (one of the robbers of Collins) came into town with a fine span of matched horses, with halter ropes around

their necks. From the known character of their possessor, the sheriff thought best to take the horses into his custody. Brown's gang remonstrated against the proceedings, but to no effect. Subsequently a writ of replevin was procured, and the horses demanded—the sheriff refused to give them up. A general row ensued. The citizens, being the stronger party at that time, sustained the sheriff, and he maintained the dignity of his office. Handbills, describing the horses accurately, were then sent around the county. A few days afterward, a stranger appeared in town, anxiously inquiring for the sheriff, and upon meeting him, he announced his business to be the recovery of a fine span of horses, which had been stolen from him a short time before, and then so accurately described those detained by the sheriff, that the latter informed him that he then had them in his stable. Upon examining them, the man was gratified to find that they were his; turning to the crowd, he offered \$25 to any one who would produce Godfrey, remarking that, if he met him, he would wreak his vengeance upon him in a summary manner, without the intervention of a jury. Godfrey was not, however, to be found, and the horses were delivered to the stranger.

Imagine the consternation of the sheriff, when, two days later, the true owner of the horses appeared in search of them! The other was an accomplice of Godfrey, and they had taken that method of securing their booty. Similar incidents could be detailed to fill pages, for they were of continual occurrence.

On the 20th of March, 1840, the citizens of Bellevue, not implicated in the plans of the horse-thieves and counterfeiters, held a meeting to consider the wrongs of the community. But one opinion was advanced, that the depredators must leave the place or summary vengeance would be inflicted upon them all. It was resolved that a warrant should be procured for the arrest of the whole gang, from Justice Watkins—father of our present sheriff—and, upon a certain day, the sheriff, accompanied by all the honest citizens as a posse, should proceed to serve the same. The warrant was issued upon the affidavit of Anson Harrington, Esq., one of our most respectable citizens, charging about half the inhabitants of the town—Brown's men—with the commission of crimes.

A posse of 80 men was selected by the sheriff from among the best citizens of the county, who met in Bellevue on the first day of April, 1840, at 10 o'clock, A.M. Brown, in the mean time, had got wind of the proceedings, and had rallied a party of 23 men, whose names were on the warrant, and proceeded to fortify the Bellevue Hotel, and prepare for a vigorous defense. On the sheriff's arriving in Bellevue with his party, he found a red flag streaming from the hotel, and a portion of Brown's men marching to and fro in front of their fort, armed with rifles, presenting a formidable appearance.

A meeting of the citizens was then convened to consult upon the best method of securing the ends of justice, of which Major Thos. S. Parks was chairman. It was resolved that the sheriff should go to Brown's fort, with two men, and demand their surrender, reading his warrant, and assuring them that they should be protected in their persons and property. It was also resolved, if they did not surrender, to storm the house, and that Col. Thos. Cox, then a representative in the Iowa legislature, should assist the sheriff in the command of the party selected for this purpose.

The sheriff then went to the hotel, accompanied by Messrs. Watkins and Magoon. When near the house, they were suddenly surrounded by Brown and a party of his men, all fully armed. They captured the sheriff, and ordered Watkins and Magoon to return and inform the citizens, that at the first attempt to storm the house, they would shoot the sheriff. Being conducted into the house, the sheriff read his warrant and informed them of the proceedings of the meeting. Just then it was discovered that Col. Cox, with a party of citizens, was rapidly advancing on the hotel. Upon the sheriff's promise to stop them and then return, he was released by Brown. He met the party, and accosting Cox, requested him to delay the attack one hour, and if he (the sheriff) did not return by that time, for them to come on and take the house.

Cox was determined the Sheriff should not return, saying that he should not keep his word with such a band of ruffians. Better counsels, however, prevailed, and the sheriff went back. On his return he found that Brown's men had been

drinking freely to keep up their courage. After some parleying, Brown determined not to surrender, commanding the sheriff to return to his men and tell them to come on, and if they succeeded in carrying the hotel, it should only be over their dead bodies.

The sheriff returned and disclosed the result of his interview. Mrs. Brown, in the mean time, and a fellow called Buckskin, paraded the streets with a red flag. The citizens were then addressed by Cox and Watkins, and it was finally determined that a body of forty men should be selected to make the attack, upon which the posse started and charged upon the house at a full run. As our men entered the porch, the garrison commenced firing, but we being so near they generally over-shot their mark. At the first fire one of our best men, Mr. Palmer, was killed, and another, Mr. Vaughn, badly wounded. Brown opened the door and put out his gun to shoot, when he was immediately shot down by one of our men. The battle then became desperate and hand to hand. After considerable hard fighting, the "balance" of the gang commenced their retreat through the back door of the house. They were surrounded and all captured but three. The result of the fight was, on the part of the counterfeiters the loss of five killed and two badly wounded; on the part of the citizens, four killed and eleven wounded.

The excitement after the fight was intense. Many of the citizens were in favor of putting all the prisoners to death. Other counsels, however, prevailed, and a citizens' court was organized to try them.

During the fight, Capt. Harris anchored his boat in the middle of the river, and remained there until the result was known, when the passengers ascended to the upper deck and gave three hearty cheers. Doctors Finley, of Dubuque, and Crossman, of Galena, were sent for, and were soon in attendance on the wounded of both parties.

Much joy was manifested by the citizens at the breaking up of one of the most desperate gangs of housebreakers, murderers and counterfeiters, that ever infested the western country. The next morning a vote of the citizens was taken as to the disposal of the prisoners.

As the district court was not to meet for three months, and there being no jail in the county, and in fact none in the territory that was safe, and surrounded as we were on all sides, by offshoots of the same band, who could muster 200 men in a day's time to rescue them, it was deemed the merest folly to attempt to detain them as prisoners, and it was resolved to execute summary justice upon them. The question was then put, whether to hang or whip them. A cup of red and white beans was first passed around, to be used as ballots, the *red* for hanging, and the *white* for whipping.

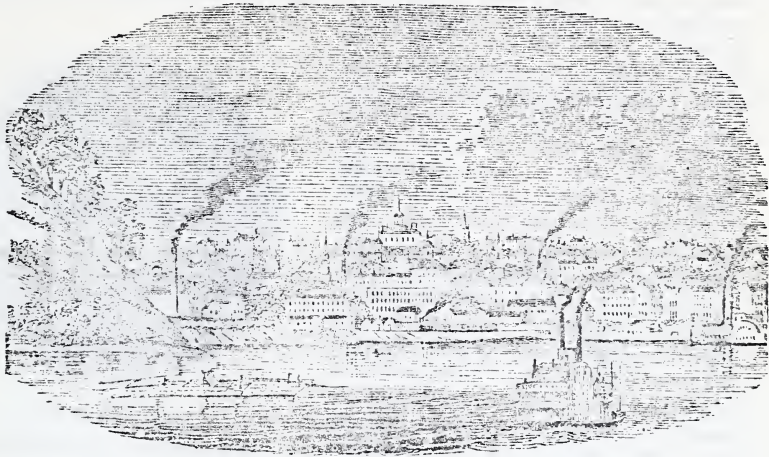
A breathless silence was maintained during the vote. In a few moments the result was announced. It stood *forty-two* white and *thirty-eight* red beans. The resolution to whip them was then unanimously adopted. Fox, afterward the murderer of Davenport, and several others made full confessions of many crimes, in which they had been engaged. The whole crowd of prisoners was then taken out and received from twenty-five to seventy-five lashes apiece, upon their bare backs, according to their deserts. They were then put into boats and set adrift in the river, without oars, and under the assurance that a return would insure a speedy death.

Animated by the example of Bellevue, the citizens of Rock River, Ill., Linn, Johnson, and other counties, in Iowa, arose *en masse*, and expelled the gangs of robbers from their midst, with much bloodshed.

Thus ended the struggle for supremacy between vice and virtue in Bellevue, which, from this day forth, has been as noted, in the Mississippi valley, for the morality of its citizens, as it was once rendered infamous by their crimes.

BURLINGTON, a flourishing commercial city, the seat of justice for Des Moines county, is on the western side of the Mississippi, 45 miles above Keokuk, 248 above St. Louis, and 1,420 above New Orleans. The city was organized under a charter from the Territory of Wisconsin, in 1838. It is

regularly laid out and beautifully situated. Part of the city is built on the high grounds or bluffs, rising in some places about 200 feet above the river, affording a beautiful and commanding view of the surrounding country: with the river, and its woody islands, stretching far away to the



South-eastern view of Burlington.

The view shows the appearance of the city, as seen from near the South Bluff: the eastern terminus of the Burlington and Missouri Railroad, the Court House, and other public buildings, on the elevated ground in the distance, appear in the central part; the North Bluff and Steamboat Landing on the right

north and south. It has a variety of mechanical and manufacturing establishments. The pork packing business is carried on extensively. It is the seat of the Burlington University, and contains 12 churches, in 1860, 6,706 inhabitants.

The country for sixty miles around Burlington, sometimes called the "garden of Iowa," is very fertile. Near the city are immense quantities of gray limestone rock, suitable for building purposes.

The first white person who located himself in Burlington, appears to have been Samuel S. White, a native of Ohio, who built a cabin here, in 1832, close to the river at the foot of the upper bluff. The United States, according to the treaty with the Indians, not being then entitled to the lands west of the Mississippi, the dragoons from Fort Armstrong came down, burnt White out, and drove him over to the Illinois side of the river. He remained on Honey Creek till the 1st of the next June, when, the Indian title being extinguished, he returned and rebuilt his cabin near its former site.

Mr. White was soon afterward joined by Amzi Doolittle, and in 1834, they laid out the first part of the town on the public lands. The survey of White and Doolittle was made by Benjamin Tucker and Dr. Wm. R. Ross. Their bounds extended down to Hawkeye Creek. White and Doolittle afterward sold out all their lands and removed. The first addition to this tract was made by Judge David Rorer, a native of Virginia, in April, 1836, who had emigrated the month previous. In July of this year, he built the first brick building ever erected in Iowa. Judge R. laid the first brick with his own hands. This building stood on what is now lot 438, the next corner north

of Marion Hall. This dwelling was taken down by Col. Warren, in 1854 or '55. The first location made outside the town, was by a settler named Tothoro, whose cabin was about three miles from the river; this was previous to June, 1833. He was consequently driven off by the dragons, and his cabin destroyed.

The town was named by John Gray, a native of *Burlington*, Vermont, and brother-in-law to White, the first settler. The Flint Hills were called by the Indians *Shokokon*, a word in their language signifying "flint hills;" these bluffs are generally about 150 feet above the river. Burlington became the county seat of Des Moines in 1834, under the jurisdiction of Michigan. In 1836 it was made the seat of government of Wisconsin Territory, and in the fall of 1837, the legislature of that territory first met at Burlington. When Iowa Territory was formed in 1838, Burlington became the seat of government. The building in which the legislative assembly first met stood on the river bank, just north of Columbia-street. It was burnt down soon afterward. At the first court held in



JUDGE RORER'S HOUSE.

The first brick building erected in Iowa.

Burlington, three divorces were granted, one conviction for assault and battery, and one fine for contempt of court. The record does not show the grounds of contempt, but from other sources we learn it was a rencounter in open court, in which the tables of the judges, being dry goods boxes and barrels with planks laid across, were overturned. The hero of the occasion was afterward taken prisoner in the Santa Fe expedition from Texas.

Dr. Ross and Maj. Jeremiah Smith, who came to Burlington in 1833, were the first merchants. The first church (the Methodist Old Zion) was erected the same year, and is believed to have been the first house of worship erected in Iowa. In this venerable structure, which is still standing, the legislative body have met and courts have been held. The "*Iowa Territorial Gazette*," the first newspaper, was issued in the summer of 1837, by James Clarke, from Pennsylvania, who was subsequently governor of the territory. The second paper was the "*Iowa Patriot*," afterward the "*Hawkeye*," by James G. Edwards, of Boston. The *Iowa Historical and Geological Society* was organized in 1843, and is the oldest literary society in the state.

The following inscriptions are from monuments in the Aspen Grove Cemetery, at the N.W. border of the city:

Here lie the mortal remains of JAS. CLARKE, founder of the first Newspaper in Burlington, Member of the first Constitutional Convention, Secretary and Governor of the Territory of Iowa. Born July 5, 1812; died July 23, 1850

My Husband and our Father, ARNER LEONARD, minister of the Gospel, born Dec. 13, 1787, in Washington Co., Pa.; died Oct. 30, 1856.

Now with my Savior, Brother, Friend,
A blest Eternity I'll spend,
Triumphant in his grace.

In memory of REV. HORACE HUTCHINSON, late Pastor of the Congregational Church, of Burlington. He was born at Sutton, Mass., Aug. 10, 1817. Graduated at Amherst College, 1839, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1843. He died March 7, 1846.

Sacred to the memory of REV. SAMUEL PAYNE, Missionary, native of New Jersey, who departed this life, Jan. 8, 1845, aged 38 years, 6 mo. and 17 days. Blessed are the dead which die in the Lord from henceforth: yea saith the spirit, that they may rest from their labors; and their works do follow them. Rev. xiv, 13.

In memory of REV. THOMAS SCHULTZ, German Missionary of the Methodist Church: born July 11, 1821; died March 13, 1843. "Christus ist mein Leben und sterben ist mein Gewinn.

In memory of REV. WILLIAM HEMMINGHAUS, German Missionary of the M.E. Church; born Jan. 26, 1808; died Jan. 24, 1848.

Wo ich bin da soll mein, diener auch sein.
Where I am, there shall be my servant. Jan. 12, 1826.



East view of Keokuk.

The view shows the appearance of Keokuk, as seen from the heights above the Ferry landing, on the Illinois side of the Mississippi. The Keokuk, Fort Des Moines and Minnesota Railroad is on the extreme left; the Keokuk, Mount Pleasant and Muscatine Railroad on the right.

KEOKUK, and semi-capital of Lee county, is a short distance above the confluence of the Des Moines with the Mississippi, on the west side of the Mississippi, 200 miles above St. Louis, 1,400 above New Orleans, and about 150 from Des Moines, the capital. It is at the S.E. corner of the state, at the foot of the "Lower Rapids," and being the only city of Iowa having uninterrupted communication with all the great tributaries of the "Father of Waters," it has not inaptly been called the "Gate City" of Iowa. The site of Keokuk is remarkably fine. It covers the top and slopes of a large bluff, partially around which the Mississippi bends with a graceful curve, commanding a fine prospect to the south and north. The city stands

upon an inexhaustible quarry of limestone rock, forming ample material for buildings. A portion of the great water power at this point is used in various manufactories, flouring mills, founderies, etc. The Mississippi, upward from this place, flows over a rocky bed of limestone, called the *Rapids*, 12 miles in extent, falling, in that distance, 24½ feet, making it difficult for the larger class of steamboats to pass. The city contains several splendid public buildings, the medical department of the State University, hospital, some eight or nine churches, and about 13,000 inhabitants.

The plat of the village of Keokuk was laid out in the spring of 1837, and in the ensuing June a public sale of town lots was held, and attended by a very large crowd. One boat was chartered in St. Louis, and numbers came up on other boats. Only two or three lots, the south-west corner of Main-street and the levee, and one or two others lying contiguous, were sold. The corner lot went for \$1,500, and a New York company still hold the deed of trust on it to secure the payment.

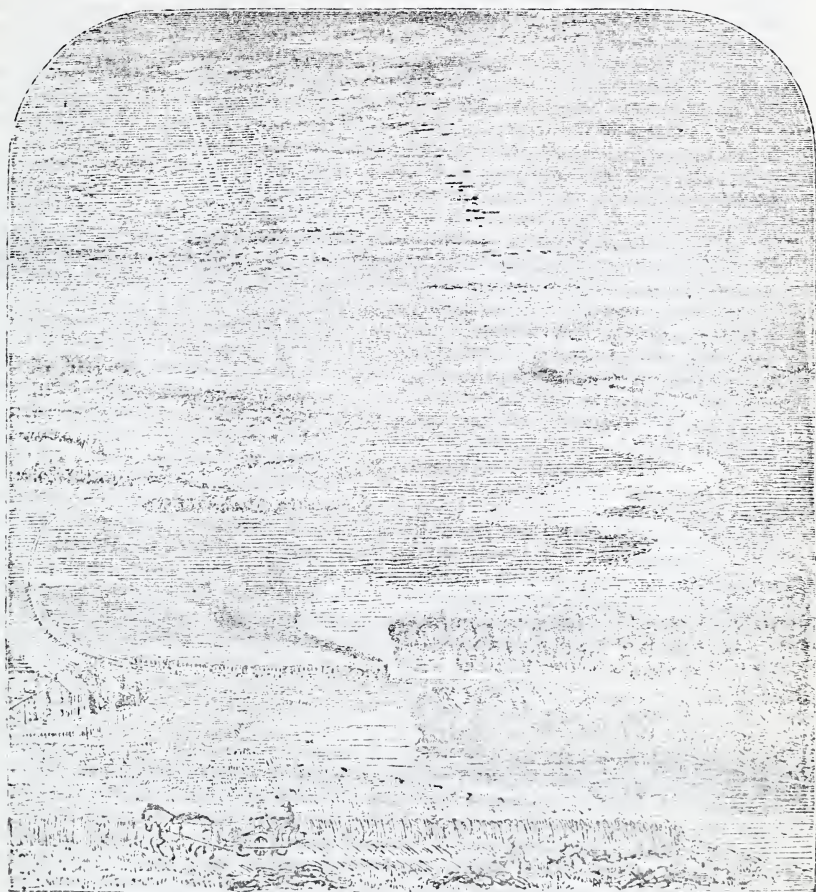
In 1840, the main portion of Keokuk was a dense forest, and where Main-street now is, were thick timber and underbrush. It was so swampy and rough between Third and Fourth-streets, as to be rather dangerous riding on horseback after a heavy rain. About a dozen cabins comprised all the improvements. In the spring of 1847, a census of the place gave a population of 620. Owing to the unsettled state of the titles, but little progress was made till 1849. From that time until the autumn of 1857 it had a rapid growth.

Keokuk derived its name from Keokuk (*the Watchful Fox*), a chieftain of the Sac tribe, distinguished for his friendship to the Americans during the Black Hawk war. He often lost his popularity with his tribe by his efforts to keep them at peace with the United States, and nothing but his powerful eloquence and tact sustained him. He was once deposed by his tribe, and a young chief elected in his place. He, however, soon attained his former position. Keokuk was born about the year 1780. He was not a hereditary chief, but raised himself to that dignity by the force of talent and enterprise. He was a man of extraordinary eloquence; fertile in resources on the field of battle; possessed of desperate bravery; and never at a loss in any emergency. He had six wives, was fond of display, and on his visits of state to other tribes, moved, it is supposed, in more savage magnificence than any other chief on the continent. He was a noble looking man, about five feet ten inches in height, portly, and over 200 pounds in weight. He had an eagle eye, a dignified bearing, and a manly, intelligent expression of countenance, and always painted and dressed in the Indian costume. He supplanted Black Hawk as chieftain of the Sacs and Foxes. He died in Missouri a few years since, and was succeeded in the chieftainship by his son.

The Des Moines River, which terminates at Keokuk, is one of the noblest of streams. Keokuk is the principal port of its valley, in which half the population and agricultural wealth of the state are concentrated. On the banks of the Des Moines stood the village of the celebrated chief *Black Hawk*, who there breathed his last, Oct. 3, 1840. He was buried near the banks of the river, in a sitting posture, as is customary with his tribe. His hands grasped his cane, and his body was surrounded by stakes, which united at the top.

Iowa is noted for the extent and magnificence of her prairies. These are of great advantage to the rapid and easy settlement of a country. When,

however, too extensive; without a sufficiency of timber, a prairie country has some serious drawbacks. Fortunately, in Iowa, the immense beds of coal partly supply the deficiency in fuel, and the prairie country there is remarkably healthy. It is generally rolling, often even hilly, the streams mostly



Prairie Scenery.

fresh running water, with sandy or gravelly beds, which condition prevents the origin of miasma, the great scourge of flat, prairie districts, where sluggish streams, winding their snaky shaped course through rich alluvial soils, generate disease and death from their stagnant waters, green and odious with the slime of a decaying vegetation. The prairie farms of Iowa, large, smooth and unbroken by stump or other obstruction, afford an excellent field for the introduction of mowing machines and other improved implements of agriculture.

The wonderful fertility of the prairies is accounted for by the fact that we have a soil "which for thousands of years has been bearing annual crops of grass, the ashes or decayed stems of which have been all that time adding to the original fer-

tility of the soil. So long back as we have any knowledge of the country, it had been the custom of the Indians to set fire to the prairie grass in autumn, after frost set in, the fire spreading with wonderful rapidity, covering vast districts of country, and filling the atmosphere for weeks with smoke. In the course of ages a soil somewhat resembling an ash-heap must have been thus gradually created, and it is no wonder that it should be declared to be inexhaustible in fertility. In Europe such tracts of fertile country as the plain of Lombardy are known to have yielded crops for more than 2,000 years without intermission, and yet no one says that the soil is exhausted. Here we have a tract naturally as rich, and with the addition of its own crops rotting upon its surface, and adding to its stores of fertility all that time. It need occasion no surprise therefore, to be told of twenty or thirty crops of Indian corn being taken in succession from the same land, without manure, every crop, good or better, according to the nature of the season."

A distinguished English chemist analyzed some of the prairie soils of the west. His analysis, which was of the most scrutinizing character, bears out completely the high character for fertility which practice and experience had already proved these soils to possess. The most noticeable feature in the analysis is the very large quantity of nitrogen which each of the soils contains, nearly twice as much as the most fertile soils of Britain. In each case, taking the soil at an average depth of ten inches, an acre of these prairies will contain upward of three tons of nitrogen, and as a heavy crop of wheat with its straw contains about fifty-two pounds of nitrogen, there is thus a natural store of ammonia in this soil sufficient for more than a hundred wheat crops. In Dr. Voelcker's words, "It is this large amount of nitrogen, and the beautiful state of division, that impart a peculiar character to these soils, and distinguish them so favorably. They are soils upon which I imagine flax could be grown in perfection, supposing the climate to be otherwise favorable. I have never before analyzed soils which contained so much nitrogen, nor do I find any record of soils richer in nitrogen than these."

"The novelty of the prairie country is striking, and never fails to cause an exclamation of surprise from those who have lived amid the forests of Ohio and Kentucky, or along the wooded shores of the Atlantic, or in sight of the rocky barriers of the Allegheny ridge. The extent of the prospect is exhilarating. The outline of the landscape is undulating and graceful. The verdure and the flowers are beautiful; and the absence of shade, and consequent appearance of a profusion of light, produces a gaiety which animates every beholder.

These plains, although preserving a general level in respect to the whole country, are yet, in themselves, *not flat*, but exhibit a gracefully waving surface, swelling and sinking with easy, graceful slopes, and full, rounded outlines, equally avoiding the unmeaning horizontal surface, and the interruption of abrupt or angular elevations.

The attraction of the prairie consists in its extent, its carpet of verdure and flowers, its undulating surface, its groves, and the fringe of timber by which it is surrounded. Of all these, the latter is the most expressive feature. It is that which gives character to the landscape, which imparts the shape, and marks the boundary of the plain. If the prairie be small, its greatest beauty consists in the vicinity of the surrounding margin of woodland, which resembles the shore of a lake indented with deep vistas, like bays and inlets, and throwing out long points, like capes and headlands.

In the spring of the year, when the young grass has just covered the ground with a carpet of delicate green, and especially if the sun is rising from behind a distant swell of the plain and glittering upon the dewdrops, no scene can be more lovely to the eye. The groves, or clusters of timber, are particularly attractive at this season of the year. The rich undergrowth is in full bloom. The rosewood, dogwood, crab-apple, wild plum, the cherry, and the wild rose are all abundant, and in many portions of the state the grape-vine abounds. The variety of wild fruit and flowering shrubs is so great, and such the profusion of the blossoms with which they are bowed down, that the eye is regaled almost to satiety.

The gaiety of the prairie, its embellishments, and the absence of the gloom and savage wildness of the forest, all contribute to dispel the feeling of loneliness which usually creeps over the mind of the solitary traveler in the wilderness. Though

he may not see a house or a human being, and is conscious that he is far from the habitations of men, the traveler upon the prairie can scarcely divest himself of the idea that he is traveling through scenes embellished by the hand of art. The flowers, so fragile, so delicate, and so ornamental, seem to have been tastefully disposed to adorn the scene.

In the summer, the prairie is covered with long, coarse grass, which soon assumes a golden hue, and waves in the wind like a fully ripe harvest. The prairie-grass never attains its highest growth in the richest soil; but in low, wet, or marshy land, where the substratum of clay lies near the surface, the center or main stem of the grass—that which bears the seed—shoots up to the height of eight and ten feet, throwing out long, coarse leaves or blades. But on the rich, undulating prairies, the grass is finer, with less of stalk and a greater profusion of leaves. The roots spread and interweave, forming a compact, even sod, and the blades expand into a close, thick grass, which is seldom more than eighteen inches high, until late in the season, when the seed-bearing stem shoots up. The first coat is mingled with small flowers—the violet, the bloom of the wild strawberry, and various others, of the most minute and delicate texture. As the grass increases in height, these smaller flowers disappear, and others, taller and more gaudy, display their brilliant colors upon the green surface; and still later, a larger and coarser succession arises with the rising tide of verdure. It is impossible to conceive a more infinite diversity, or a richer profusion of hues, 'from grave to gay,' than graces the beautiful carpet of green throughout the entire season of summer."

"The autumnal months, in Iowa, are almost invariably clear, warm, and dry. The immense mass of vegetation with which this fertile prairie soil loads itself during the summer is suddenly withered, and the whole earth is covered with combustible materials. This is especially true of those portions where grass grows from two to ten feet high, and is exposed to sun and wind, becoming thoroughly dried. A single spark of fire, falling upon the prairie at such a time, instantly kindles a blaze that spreads on every side, and continues its destructive course as long as it finds fuel. These fires sweep along with great power and rapidity, and frequently extend across a wide prairie and advance in a long line. No sight can be more sublime than a stream of fire, beheld at night, several miles in breadth, advancing across the plains, leaving behind it a background of dense black smoke, throwing before it a vivid glare, which lights up the whole landscape for miles with the brilliancy of noonday. The progress of the fire is so slow, and the heat so intense, that every combustible in its course is consumed. The roots of the prairie-grass, and several species of flowers, however, by some peculiar adaptation of nature, are spared."

The winters on the prairie are often terrible. Exposed to the full sweep of the icy winds that come rushing down from the Rocky Mountains, without a single obstruction, the unlucky traveler that is caught, unprotected by sufficient clothing, is in imminent danger of perishing before the icy blast. December and January of the winter of 1856-7, were unprecedentedly stormy and cold in western Iowa. A writer for one of the public prints, who passed that winter on the western frontier of this state, gives this vivid picture of the sufferings of the frontier settlers, his communication being dated at "Jefferson's Grove, fifty miles from a postoffice."

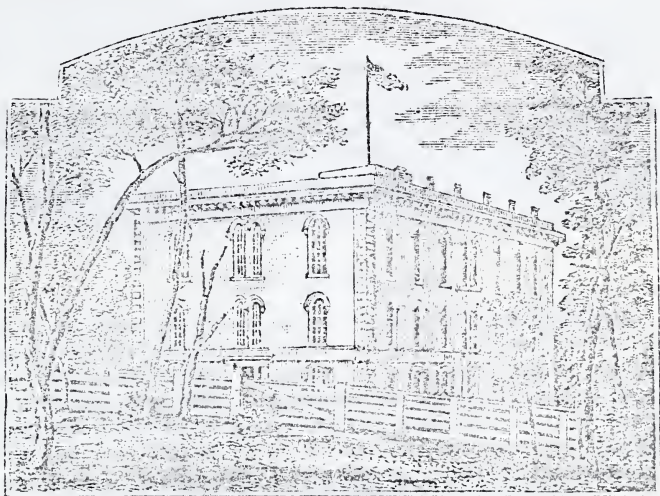
"Once the mercury has been 30 deg. below zero, twice 24 deg., several times 16 deg., and more than seven eighths of the time at some point below zero. Only two days in the whole two months has it been above the freezing point.

We have had four fierce snow storms, in which one could not see an object four rods distant, and I doubt if such storms can be excelled in fury in any of the hyperborean regions. Everybody was compelled to keep within doors; cattle were driven before the driving snow until they found refuge in the groves; and most of the houses, within doors, were thoroughly sifted with snow. But I will relate a few instances of frontier hardships.

Forty miles above here, at the very margin of the settlement, a family was caught by the first snow storm, almost without firewood and food. In the morning the husband made a fire, and leaving to seek for assistance from his nearest neighbors, distant six miles, directed his family to make *one more fire*, and then retire to bed, and there remain until he returned; they did so. After excessive hardships, he

returned on the second day, with some friends, and conveyed his wife and little children, on hand-sleds through the deep snow, to their kind neighbors.

Last summer five families ventured across a fifty mile prairie, uninhabited, of course, and commenced making farms on a small stream, very sparsely timbered, called Boyer River. The early frost nipped their late corn, and left them without food. Seven of the men of this little detached settlement, started in the Fall for Fort Des Moines, distant one hundred and fifty miles, to procure provisions and other necessities. When on their return, fifty miles from Fort Des Moines, on the North Koon River, they were overtaken by the severe snow-storm that commenced on the first day of December and raged for forty-eight hours. They then halted, constructed sleds, and started for their families, one hundred miles distant, across a trackless prairie. They suffered terribly, and one of them perished with the cold."

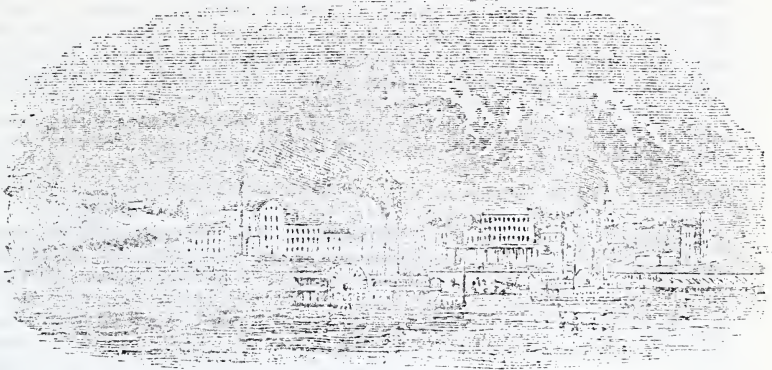


State Capitol, Des Moines.

Des Moines, which became in 1855 the capital of Iowa, is at the head of steamboat navigation on Des Moines River, in the geographical center of the state, about 170 miles west of Davenport, and 140 eastward of Council Bluffs. The line of the Mississippi and Missouri Railroad passes through the city, as also will several others in contemplation. The city is situated at the confluence of Raccoon River with the Des Moines, the two streams uniting near the corporation limits. The scenery at this point is beautiful: a smooth valley, rising on all sides, by successive benches, back to the gently sloping hills, which finally attain a height of about 200 feet.

This spot was the council ground of the Indians. It was afterward the site of Fort Des Moines, selected by the officers of the U. S. army, on which barracks and defenses were erected. Most of the town is laid out with wide streets. On the elevations are beautiful building sites, commanding views of all the central town, of both rivers, and of the faces of most of the other hills, with their residences. On the summit of one of the hills is the present state house, and the square set apart for the permanent capitol. Some 6 or 7 churches are already erected, and 3 newspapers are printed. Population about 5,000.

MUSCATINE, the county seat of Muscatine county, is situated 100 miles above Keokuk, and 32 below Davenport. Commencing at the Upper Rapids, the Mississippi runs in a westerly direction until it strikes a series of rocky bluffs, by which its course is turned due south. At this bend, and on the summit of the bluffs, is situated the city of Muscatine, which is regularly



Western view of Muscatine.

laid out, with fine, wide streets, having several elegant buildings. It is a shipping point for a very great amount of produce raised in the adjoining countries. When the various railroads are completed which are to run in various directions from this point, Muscatine will have added to her natural advantages fine facilities for communication with every part of the country. Muscatine was first settled by the whites in 1836, previous to which time it was an Indian trading post, known by the name of *Mumathoka*. Afterward it was called Bloomington. Population in 1860, 5,324.

Council Bluffs City, the county seat of Pottawatomie county, is near the geographical center of the United States, on the east side of the Missouri River, about 140 miles westward of Des Moines, the capital of the state, nearly opposite Omaha City, the capital of Nebraska, about 300 miles above Leavenworth City, and 685 above St. Louis. It is built on a beautiful extended plain. It has a number of fine stores, and many elegant private buildings. This is a flourishing place, and here a portion of the emigrants for the far west procure their outfits. It was for a long time an important point in overland travel to California, being the last civilized settlement before entering the Indian country. Four important railroads from the east are projected directly to this place, some of which are fast progressing to completion. The first one finished will be the Mississippi and Missouri, which, commencing at Davenport, already extends to beyond Iowa City. Population about 5,000.

A gentleman, who was at Council Bluffs in 1860, gives these valuable items upon the history of the town, and the condition and resources of the country:

The growth of Council Bluffs has been rapid within the last six years, and it still retains, as it is likely to retain, the position of the most important city of western Iowa. This point was formerly known as *Kanecsville*, and was for about

three years—from 1846 to 1849—the residence of the Mormon hosts of Brigham Young, in his celebrated march to the great Salt Lake valley. After the Mormons were driven from Nauvoo, they determined to build up a kingdom to themselves in the far west. They departed, but upon reaching the borders of the great plains they found they had not the number of cattle and horses, nor the provisions that were indispensable for so long and so distant a journey; so they selected a romantic and wooded valley, adjoining the great bottoms of the Missouri, for their temporary home. Timber was plenty, and with it they soon constructed log houses for fifteen thousand people. They inclosed several hundred acres of the rich and easily cultivated Missouri bottoms, and planted them with corn. Their cattle, fed on these fine pastures, increased in numbers rapidly. They raised large amounts of corn—for these fanatics are hard working, industrious men and women. In three years they found themselves so prosperous that they resumed their journey, and in due time found themselves at their destination in the "*Holy Valley*," at the Great Salt Lake.

As the Mormons left, other settlers came in. The name was changed to Council Bluffs. This cognomen had been given by Lewis and Clarke, a long time before, to a point on the Missouri, several miles above the present town. It had become a historical name, and it was wise in the new-comers to appropriate it to their use. So much for the early history of this place. The Mormon town was built in a very pleasant valley, that opens upon the great Missouri bottom from the north-east. It is four miles from the base of the hills, which are several hundred feet high, and very abrupt, to the river. The log houses left by the Mormons were used by the early settlers, and many of them are yet standing.

But it soon became manifest that the business part of the future city must be on the great plain or bottom, and out of the bluffs. And so the result has shown. The best part of the city is on the plain, though the finest places for residences are on the delightful slopes and hillsides of the valleys, which now constitute the upper town.

The view from the high bluffs back of the city is very commanding and beautiful. From the top of one of these hills one can see six rising cities in the far distance—Omaha, Saratoga, Florence, Bellevue, St. Marys, and Pacific City. At the foot of these bluffs the Missouri bottom extends four miles to the west, to Omaha, and to the south and north as far as the eye can reach. The bottoms are from four to ten miles in width, and are mostly dry and most fertile lands. Strips of timber abound. The bluffs facing the bottom are generally naked, and very abrupt. The eastern man will again and again wonder how the earth can be made to remain in such fantastic and sharply pointed shapes for centuries, as he finds them here. Back of the first range of bluffs, the country is covered with timber for some miles, when the rolling and open prairie becomes the leading feature for hundreds of miles, and indeed across the state of Iowa to the Mississippi River.

Council Bluffs claims a population of 5,000, but the usual deduction must be made. It has passed through the usual process of rapid and extended inflation, and consequent collapse and almost suspension of vitality. The paper part of the city embraces territory enough for a quarter of a million of people. The extensive and rich bottoms, instead of being cultivated as farms, are all staked off into city lots; and in years past, large numbers of them were sold to speculators. So crazy did these people become, that one man bought a quarter section of this bottom land, two miles from the present town, and gave his notes for *sixty thousand dollars* for the same. He collapsed, of course, as the crash of 1857 brought his air castle to the ground; and he can not now sell his land for twenty dollars per acre. Here is another large four story monument of folly in the shape of a brick hotel, some half a mile out from the present business part of the city. A man by the name of Andrews had sold out shares in Florence for large sums. He had realized about thirty thousand dollars in hard cash. He became giddy, bought a tract adjoining Council Bluffs, laid it off into city lots; and, to show his faith and to sell his lots, he erected this large and costly hotel. But it was never completed. The crash also caught him unprepared, and he went under, with thousands of others. His hotel is roofed, but not finished; and it looks the wreck it is, of the vast inflation which culminated and exploded three years ago.

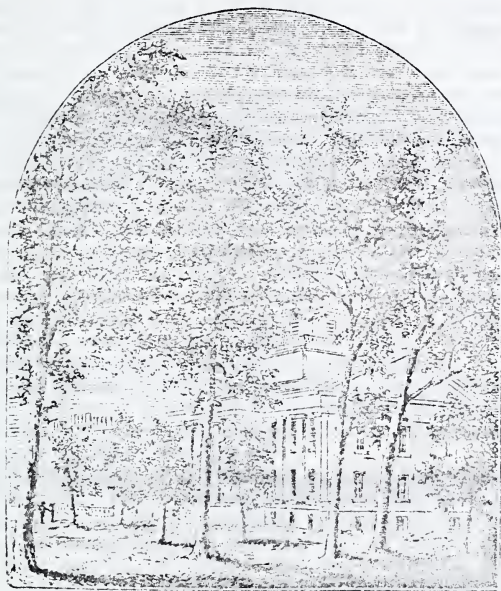
Still there are many evidences of substantial prosperity in Council Bluffs. Several brick blocks of stores would do credit to older towns, and they are well filled with stocks of goods, and held by substantial, intelligent business men. The business portion is mainly on the plain, and is extending from the base of the bluffs toward the river. The present steamboat landing is about four miles from the town, and directly south of it. Council Bluffs has the Kanessville land office, where a large portion of the lands of western Iowa has been sold.

IOWA CITY, the first capital of the state of Iowa, is on the left bank of Iowa River, in Johnson county, 55 miles from Davenport, by the Mississippi

and Missouri Railroad, in the midst of one of the most beautiful and thriving of agricultural regions. Population in 1860, 5,214.

Annexed we present a sketch from a correspondent, giving a history of the city and of the University situated in it, which gives promise of great usefulness to the future of Iowa:

In 1833, Congress passed an act to divide the Territory of Wisconsin, and form the Territory of Iowa out of that part which lay to the west of the Mississippi River. The governor of the new territory under the organic act, fixed the seat of government at Burlington. On the 21st of January following, the territorial legislature appointed commissioners to



STATE UNIVERSITY, IOWA CITY.

The large building on the right was originally the first State Capitol.

locate the seat of government and superintend the erection of public buildings. These commissioners selected the site now occupied by Iowa City, on the east bank of the Iowa River, about 50 miles west of the Mississippi River. Congress had appropriated \$20,000 for the erection of the capitol, and subsequently granted the section of land on which the capitol was to be erected. The corner stone of the building was laid on the 4th of July, 1839. The proceeds of the sale of lots on the section granted by congress, defrayed the main part of the expense of the erection. The first session of the legislature was held in Iowa City, in December, 1841, in a temporary building the capitol not being yet finished. The building was first occupied by the legislature in 1844.

The location of the capital soon collected a considerable population in Iowa City. When the city was first laid out, there was but one log cabin on the ground. At the end of a single year, the number of inhabitants was seven hundred, and it continued steadily to increase. In 1852, the population was 3,500. The opening of the Mississippi and Missouri Railroad, from Davenport as far as Iowa City, in 1854, and the rush of emigration into the state, gave a new impetus to the city.

In 1857 the population had increased to 8,000, and all kinds of business were exceedingly active and profitable. But the monetary crisis of 1857 put a stop to its prosperity, and since that time has diminished rather than increased, and in 1860 was only about 7,000. In 1856, the capital was removed from Iowa City to Des Moines, and permanently fixed there by the new constitution of the state, adopted in January, 1860.

When the seat of government was removed to Des Moines, the state house in Iowa City was given by the legislature to the State University, together with the 10 acres of land on which it stands. The State University has for its foundation 72 sections of land, granted by congress for the endowment of a university. In 1847, the state legislature passed a law organizing the University, and appointing trustees to manage its concerns, but the institution did not go into operation till 1855. At that time a chancellor and several professors were appointed, and the University was opened in a building hired by the trustees for that purpose. The year following a part of the state house was occupied by the preparatory department, and as lecture rooms for the professors. The building, however, was in a bad condition, and required fitting up in order to suit the purposes of an institution of learning. The city was full of people, and accommodations for students could not be easily procured, and in 1857, the pecuniary embarrassments of the country preventing the collection of the interest on the funds, the trustees saw fit to close the University for a time—this took place in the summer of 1858. By the new constitution of the state, adopted in 1857, a board of education was created, whose duty it was to take the entire charge of the educational institutions of the state. This board at their first meeting, in December, 1858, passed a law reorganizing the University, appointing a new board of trustees, with the understanding that the institution should be reopened as early as practicable. In October, 1859, they appointed the Rev. Silas Totten, D.D., LL.D., president of the University, and in June following, proceeded to fill the professorships of mathematics, languages, philosophy and chemistry, and natural history. On the 19th of October, the University was reopened under the new organization.

In the session of 1858, the legislature granted \$13,000 to the University, for repairs on the state house, and for the erection of another building for the residence of students. A new roof was put upon the state house, and the other building begun and the exterior completed.

A further grant of \$10,000 was made in 1860, \$5,000 to be expended on the old building and in the purchase of philosophical and chemical apparatus, and the remainder upon the new building. The repairs and alterations of the state house have been completed, and it is now both an elegant and commodious building for the purposes of a university. It is built of cream colored limestone, and is 120 feet long by 60 broad, and two stories high, with a basement. The walls are of massive cut stone, and the rooms are spacious and lofty. The original cost of the building was \$160,000. It contains the chapel, library, cabinet, five lecture rooms, a room occupied by the State Historical Society, and a spacious entrance hall, surmounted by a dome. The other building is of pressed brick, 105 feet by 45, three stories high, and when finished will accommodate about 100 students. The buildings are situated on a ridge of land, the highest in the city, in the middle of a park of ten acres, which contains many fine old oak trees in a very flourishing condition. The site is beautiful, overlooking the valley of the Iowa River on the west and the city on the east, while from the top of the dome may be seen a vast extent of rolling country, prairie and woodland, spread out on every side.

The University has now all the requisites for a first class institution of learning. It has a choice library of 1,500 volumes, quite an extensive mineralogical cabinet, and a very complete philosophical and chemical apparatus. Provision has been made for the increase of the library and cabinet.

Fort Dodge, the county seat of Webster county, is beautifully situated on a platform of prairie land, on the east side of Des Moines River, on the line of the Dubuque and Pacific Railroad. Building was commenced here in

the fall of 1855. Several fine brick buildings and business-houses have been erected. Bituminous coal and iron ore, of a superior quality, are found in great abundance in the immediate vicinity.

Sioux City, Woodbury county, a new settlement at the confluence of the Big Sioux River, about 230 miles above Council Bluffs, is well situated on a high bank, and is the last place of importance on the Missouri.

Fort Madison, the county seat of Lee county, is a flourishing town. It contains the state-prison, and 4000 inhabitants. A fortification was built here in 1808, as a defense against the Indians, who obliged the garrison to abandon it. In the war of 1812, the fort was twice attacked by the Indians. In November, 1813, it was evacuated and the buildings burnt, as the contractor failed to furnish the garrison with provisions.

Grinnell is in Poweshiek county, 115 miles from Davenport, by the Mississippi and Missouri Railroad, is a fine town, and noted as the seat of Iowa College.

There are in the state many small, city-like towns, as: *Keosauqua*, in Van Buren co.; *Lyons*, in Clinton; *Cedar Rapids*, in Linn; *Oskaloosa*, in Mahaska; *Cedar Falls*, in Black Hawk, and *Mount Pleasant*, in Henry. At the last named is the State Insane Asylum and the Wesleyan University and about 6000 inhabitants.

MISCELLANIES.

UNITED STATES LAND SYSTEM.

All the lands belonging to the United States, within the new states and territories, are surveyed and sold under one general system, which, from its simplicity, has been of incalculable benefit in the settlement of the west. This admirable system of surveys of lands by *townships* and *ranges*, was first adopted by Oliver Phelps, an extensive landholder in Genesee county, N. Y., who opened a land office at Canandaigua, in 1789. His was the model which was adopted for surveying all the new lands in the United States. Col. Jared Mansfield, appointed surveyor general of the United States for the North-western Territory, by Jefferson, in 1802, applied the system the government lands, and greatly improved it. In brief it is this:

"*Meridian* lines are established and surveyed in a line due north from some given point—generally from some important water-course. These are intersected at right

| | | | | | |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| 18 | 17 | 16 | 15 | 14 | 13 |
| 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
| 30 | 29 | 28 | 27 | 26 | 25 |
| 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 |

angles with a *base* line. On the meridians, the "*townships*" are numbered north and south from the *base* lines; and, on the *base* lines, "*ranges*" east or west of the *meridian*. Township lines are then run, at a distance of six miles, parallel to the *meridian* and *base* lines. Each township contains an area of 36 square miles; each square mile is termed a *section*, and contains 640 acres. The sections are numbered from 1 to 36, beginning at the north-east corner of the township, as the annexed diagram illustrates.

When surveyed, the lands are offered for sale at public auction, but can not be disposed of at a less price than one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre. That portion not sold at public auction is subject to private entry at any time, for the above price, payable in cash at the time of entry

Pre-emption rights give the improver or possessor the privilege of purchasing at the minimum price."

By a wise provision of the law of the United States, every 16th section in each township is appropriated for the support of public schools. This is one thirty sixth of all the public lands, and in a state of 36,000 square miles would give one thousand to this object.

Previous to the adoption of this system of surveying the public-lands, great confusion existed for the want of a general, uniform plan, and in consequence titles often conflicted with each other, and, in many cases, several grants covered the same premises, leading very frequently to litigation most perplexing and almost interminable. Now, the precise boundaries of any piece of land can be given in a very few lines; and, in a moment, found on the maps in the government land offices, or, if the land has been sold to individuals, in the recorder's office in the county in which it may be situated, and where it is entered for taxation. The land itself can be easily found by the permanent corner posts at each corner of the sections.

The form of description of government lands is thus shown by this example: "North-East Quarter of Section No. 23; in Township No. 26 of Range No. 4, West of Meridian Line, in White Co., Ind., and containing 160 acres." It is usual to abridge such descriptions, thus: "N.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S. 23, T. 26, R. 4 W., in White Co., Ind., & cont'g 160 A."

The state institutions and principal educational institutions of Iowa are located as follows: the State University, Iowa City, and its Medical Department at Keokuk; State Agricultural College, on a farm in Story county; the Blind Asylum, in Vinton, Benton county; Deaf and Dumb Asylum, Iowa City; Insane Asylum, Mount Pleasant; the Penitentiary, Fort Madison; State Historical Society, Iowa City; Iowa Orphan Asylum, Farmington, Van Buren county. Among educational institutions are: the Iowa College, at Grinnell; Bishop Lee Female Seminary, at Dubuque; Cornell College, at Mount Vernon; Upper Iowa University at Fayette; Iowa Wesleyan University, at Mount Pleasant; and Indianola Male and Female Seminary, at Indianola.

MISSOURI.

MISSOURI was originally included in the limits of Louisiana, purchased of the French government in 1803. The first Europeans who visited any

part of its territory appear to have been Marquette and Joliet, the French missionaries from Canada, who sailed down the Mississippi in 1673. This river was more fully explored by La Salle, in 1682, who declared all the region between the Illinois country and the Gulf of Mexico to be an appendage of France. From this period, settlements began to be made in the valley of the Mississippi, and the territory was protected from Spanish invasion by a chain of fortifications, extending from the lakes to the gulf. Among these was Fort Orleans, built in 1719, near the mouth of the Osage, not far from the site of Jefferson City.



ARMS OF MISSOURI.

Motto—*Salus populi suprema lex esto*—Let the property of the people, be the supreme law.

northern and southern extremities into the interior. Missouri being in the central part, its progress was slow. Its lead mines were worked as early as 1720. St. Genevieve, the oldest town, was founded in 1755; St. Louis in 1764; other settlements followed in quick succession. During the progress of the contest between France and Great Britain, many of the Canadian French emigrated by way of the lakes, and going southward, located themselves in both Upper and Lower Louisiana. These emigrants gave the first important impulse to the colonization of Missouri.

After the conquest of Canada, in 1763, the jurisdiction of the Mississippi passed from France to Great Britain and Spain, the Mississippi River being the dividing line between the possessions of the two latter powers. The whole population of Spanish Louisiana, north and south, at the time of the public transfer, in 1769, is stated to have been 18,840 persons, of whom 5,556 were whites, and the remainder negroes. A river trade had sprung up be-

tween the northern and southern part of the province, and the exports at this period amounted to \$250,000 annually. The laws of Spain were now extended over this part of Louisiana, and the character of the new government was conciliating. The highest tribunal in Upper Louisiana, which comprised Missouri within its limits, was that of the lieutenant governor, the governor having jurisdiction in the lower province. The commandants of the various posts in the provinces held inferior tribunals. Lands were granted liberally to colonists, and great facilities were given to settlers. Many emigrants from Spain now came into the country.

In 1763, Mr. Laclède, the head of a mercantile company, who had obtained a monopoly of the Indian and fur trade on the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers, left New Orleans on an expedition to form establishments, and open a commerce with the natives. Having left his stores at Fort Chartres, on the Kaskaskias, Laclède proceeded up the river to the bluff, where St. Louis now stands. Pleased with the situation, he determined to make it the central place of the company's operations. Laclède was accompanied by Auguste and Pierre Choteau, two young Creoles of New Orleans, of high respectability and intelligence. In 1764, Auguste, the elder of the two brothers, commenced the first buildings in St. Louis. These brothers became at this place the heads of numerous families, whose name became a passport that commanded safety and hospitality among the Indian nations in the United States, north and west.

At the commencement of the American revolution, in 1775, St. Louis, originally a depot for the fur trade, had increased to a population of about 800, and St. Genevieve to about half that number. In 1780, a body of English and Indians, 1540 strong, from Michillimackinac and the southern extremity of Lake Michigan, attacked St. Louis. During the siege, which lasted about a week, some sixty persons were killed in the town and vicinity. While the fate of the garrison remained in great uncertainty, the timely arrival of Gen. Clarke, from Kentucky, turned the tide of fortune against the enemy. The general peace of 1783, put an end to hostilities. Spain retained her previous possessions, Great Britain resigned East Louisiana, called also the "Illinois Country," to the United States, retaining only Canada and other possessions at the north.

On the restoration of peace, the settlers in the western part of the United States, to some extent, emigrated and built their cabins on the western or Spanish side of the Mississippi. Difficulties, as might have been expected, soon arose between Spain and the United States. A dispute relative to the navigation of the Mississippi occurred in 1795, when, by treaty, Spain granted to the United States free navigation of that river. But Spain did not act up to the spirit of her agreement, and threw obstacles in the way of the Americans navigating that stream. An open warfare seems to have been only prevented by the cession of Louisiana to France, in 1801, who transferred it to the United States in 1803, being purchased of the French government for fifteen millions of dollars.

The new purchase was immediately divided into the "Territory of Orleans" (since the state of Louisiana), and the "District of Louisiana," erected in 1805 into a territorial government, administered by a governor and judges, under the title of "Territory of Louisiana," having four districts, St. Charles, St. Louis, Cape Girardeau, New Madrid and Arkansas. When the present state of Louisiana came into the Union, in 1812, the name of this territory was changed to "Missouri Territory." The territory extended from latitude

33° to 41° N. The government now became representative, and the first governor under the new government was William Clarke. The legislature consisted of a council of nine members, appointed by the president, and a house of representatives, one member for every 500 free white males, elected by the people.

The limits of the Missouri Territory, on the west, were gradually extended by treaties with the Indians. "People from the western states began to move in from the time of the purchase, so that in 1810, the population numbered 20,845, of whom all, but about 1,500 belonging to Arkansas, were settled within the present limits of Missouri. The French settlements were now overrun by Americans, from Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, etc., and American habits, usages, laws, and institutions soon became prevalent. The original settlers were quickly merged and almost lost among the later and more active population, until at length the whole became a homogeneous people. Immigration was so rapid, that in 1817, the territory contained 60,000 souls. In 1817, application was made by the assembly to congress, for authority to frame a state constitution, preliminary to admission into the Union. A fierce and stormy debate arose at once on the subject in congress. A powerful party demanded that the new state should exclude slavery by their constitution. The discussion raged for two years, threatening to tear the Union asunder: at length, however, the debate was stopped by the passage of the compromise resolutions of Mr. Clay, by which it was agreed that the institution of slavery should be recognized in Missouri, but in no other new state north of latitude 36° 30'. The state constitution, somewhat modified since its adoption, was framed by a convention of forty delegates, which met at St. Louis, on the 12th of June, 1820, and was adopted on the 19th July following. The new state was found, by a census taken the same year, to contain a population of 66,586, of whom 10,222 were slaves."*

The north-western boundary of the Missouri was enlarged in the session of congress of 1836-7, by the addition of a wedge-shaped piece of territory, measuring on the east side about 104 miles long, north and south, and about 60 miles wide on the north end, and bounded on the west by the Missouri River. This territory is now comprised in the six counties of Platte, Buchanan, Andrew, Atchison, Nodaway, and Holt, and contains over three thousand square miles. Although this acquisition was in opposition to the terms of the Missouri Compromise, it appears to have been acquiesced in with little or no opposition from any source. It had its justification in a better and more natural boundary, the Missouri River: and the country being of remarkable fertility, became filled with a wealthy and thriving population.

Since the establishment of the state government, there has been to the present time a constant tide of emigration into Missouri, from the southern, western and northern states, and, to some extent, from Europe. Agriculture and commerce have flourished to a great extent. The manufacturing interests are considerable, and its extraordinary mineral wealth, is beginning to be appreciated. Many of the Mormons, previous to their location at Nauvoo, emigrated to the north-western section of the state, where they caused much difficulty, in Ray county, in which some were killed and wounded. In 1838, the governor of the state issued an order, or proclamation, for the expulsion of the Mormons. After the repeal of the "Missouri Compromise,"

* Fisher's Gazetteer of the United States.

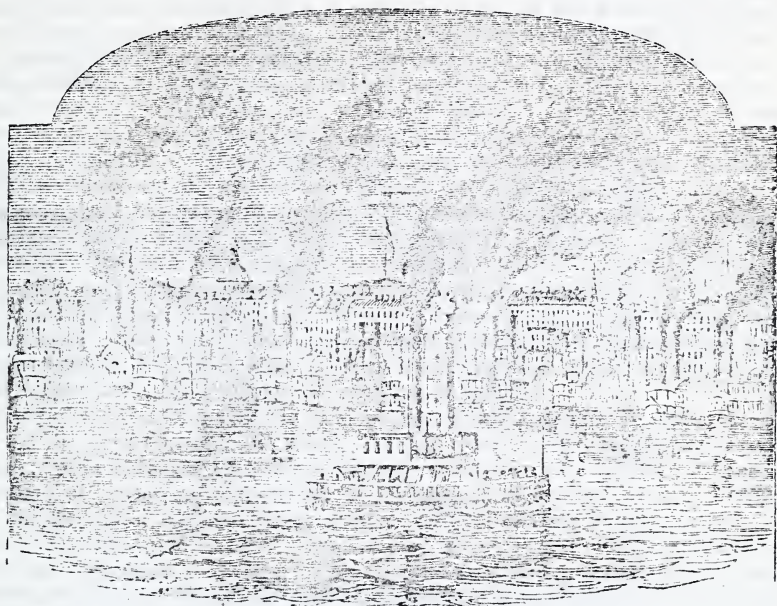
in 1854, the western border of the state became the theater of much excitement and many hostile demonstrations, arising from the contest between the free state men, who had emigrated into the adjoining Territory of Kansas, and the pro-slavery party, principally from the western border of Missouri, who were, by their opponents, termed "border ruffians." During the struggle for ascendancy, many outrages were committed, and many lives lost on both sides. Of late years, a political contest has sprung up between the emancipation and pro-slavery parties in this state, the final result of which remains to be seen.

Missouri is bounded N. by Iowa, E. by the Mississippi River, S. by Arkansas, and W. by Kansas, Nebraska, and the Indian territory. It is situated between 36° and $40^{\circ} 36'$ N. Lat., and between 89° and $95^{\circ} 36'$ W. Long. It is 287 miles long and 230 broad, containing upward of 65,000 square miles, nearly equaling in extent the six New England states together, and more than doubling them all in agricultural capacity. The surface of Missouri is quite varied. Alluvial, or bottom lands, are found on the margins of the rivers. In the interior, bottoms and barrens, naked hills and prairies, heavy forests and streams of water, may be often seen in one view. In the south-east part, near the Mississippi and south of Cape Girardeau, is an extensive marsh, reaching into Arkansas, and comprising an area nearly equal to the entire state of Connecticut. Back of this is a hilly country, rich in minerals, which extends to Osage River. One of the richest coal fields in the Union occupies the greater part of the state north of the Osage River, and extending nearly to the Iowa line. The coal is bituminous and much of it cannel. The great cannel coal bed in Calloway county, is the largest body of cannel coal known: in places it is 75 feet thick. On distillation, it yields excellent coke, and a gas that, being destitute of sulphur, burns with a bright and beautiful flame. The lead region is at an average distance of seventy miles from St. Louis, and covers an area of 3,000 square miles. While in Wisconsin the lead does not extend 100 feet in depth, the lead veins of Missouri extend, in places, more than 1,000 feet. The mineral region contains 216 localities of lead ore, 90 of iron, and 25 of copper. The state abounds in iron; in fact, no country in the world contains so much of this useful ore as Missouri; and her general mineral wealth is enormous, in coal, iron, copper, lead, etc. Minerals of the non-metallic kind are also abundant, limestone, sandstone, porphyries, gypsum, sienite, porcelain, pipe and variegated clays.

The country north of the Missouri, and that which adjoins Kansas, has been termed the garden of the west. In most places it has a beautiful, undulating surface, sometimes rising into picturesque hills, then stretching into a sea of prairie, interspersed with shady groves and streams of water.

Missouri possesses very great facilities for internal intercourse by water, having the navigation of the two greatest rivers in the United States, if not in the world. By means of the Mississippi River, forming her eastern boundary, she has commerce with the most northern territory of the Union, with the whole valley of the Ohio, some of the Atlantic states, and the Gulf of Mexico; by the Missouri, which passes through the central part of the state, she can extend her commercial intercourse to the Rocky Mountains. The climate is variable, in winter the streams are sometimes frozen so as to admit the passage of heavy loaded vehicles; the summers are very hot, but the air is dry and pure, and the climate may be classed among those most favorable to health. The soil of the state, speaking generally, is good and of great agri-

cultural capabilities, particularly the bottom lands, bordering the rivers. The principal agricultural staples are Indian corn and hemp. The southern highlands are finely adapted to the culture of the grape. In 1810, the population was less than 20,000; in 1830, it was 140,000; in 1850, 682,244, of whom 87,422 were slaves; in 1860, 1,173,317, including 114,965 slaves.



Central part of the Levee, at St. Louis.

The view was taken from Bloody Island, near the Railroad Depot, on the Illinois side of the Mississippi, and shows the steamboats lying at the Levee, in the vicinity of the Custom House, and the Court House, the upper portion of which is seen in the distance. The river front here, for a long distance, is generally crowded with steamers, lying abreast of each other, in tiers of three and four deep, indicating the extraordinary commerce of the city.

St. Louis, the commercial capital of Missouri, and of the great central valley of the Mississippi, is situated on the W. bank of the Mississippi, 18 miles below the junction of the Missouri. It is in $38^{\circ} 37' 28''$ N. Lat., and $90^{\circ} 15' 16''$ W. Long., about 1,200 miles above New Orleans, 340 from Cincinnati, 822 from St. Paul, 274 from Louisville, Ky., 180 above Cairo, and 125 from Jefferson City, the capital of the state. The compact part of the city stretches about three miles along the river, and two miles back. The site rises from the river into two limestone elevations, the first, twenty, and the second forty feet above the ordinary floods of the Mississippi. The ascent to the first is rather abrupt, the second rises more gradually, and spreads out into an extensive plain. The city is well laid out, the streets being for the most part 60 feet wide, and, with few exceptions cross each other at right angles. Front-street, which extends along the levee, is upward of 100 feet broad, built upon the side facing the river with a massive range of stone warehouses, which make an imposing appearance. The population of St. Louis

in 1840, was 16,469; in 1850, 82,774; and in 1860, 162,179. About one third of the inhabitants are natives of Germany or their descendants.

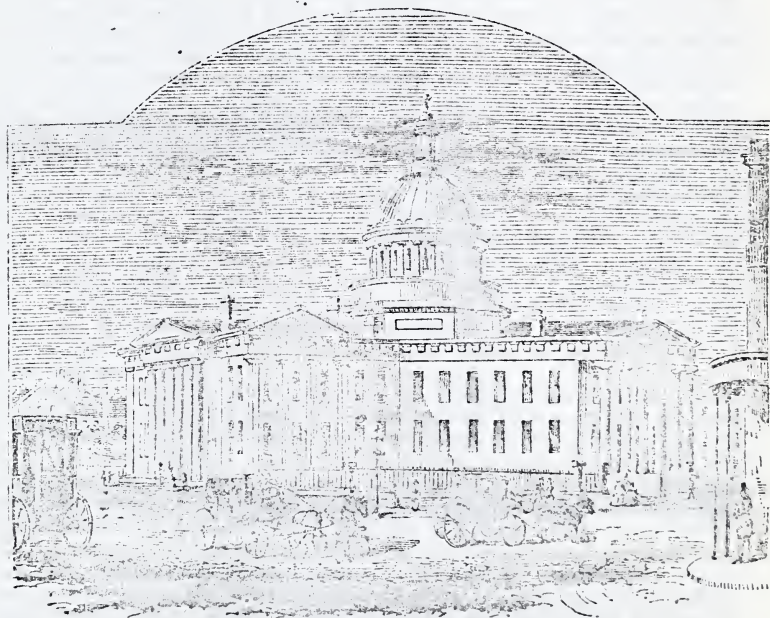
St. Louis is sometimes fancifully called the "*Mound City*," from a great mound, at the base of which it was first settled, and which is said by the Indians to have been the burial place of their ancestors for centuries.

The natural advantages which St. Louis enjoys, as a commercial emporium, are probably equal to any inland port in the world. Situated midway between two oceans, and near the geographical center of the finest agricultural and mineral region of the globe, almost at the very focus toward which converge the Mississippi, the Missouri, the Ohio, and the Illinois Rivers, she seems destined to be the great receiving and distributing depot for a vast region of country. It is now, next to New Orleans, the principal port on the Mississippi, and among the western cities is the rival to Cincinnati in population and wealth. "In a circuit of less than 90 miles from the city, iron, coal, lead, and probably copper, are sufficiently abundant to supply the Union for indefinite ages, and of this region St. Louis is the only outlet. The manufactures of St. Louis embrace a great variety of products. Among the manufacturing establishments may be mentioned, extensive iron works, flouring mills, sugar refineries, manufactures of hemp, rope and bagging factories, tobacco factories, oil mills, etc. The city is supplied with water from the Mississippi, drawn up by two engines, each of about 350 horse power, and forced through a 20 inch pipe to the reservoir, located about one mile west, and capable of holding thirty-two millions of gallons.

Very few cities in the Union have improved more rapidly in the style of its public buildings, than St. Louis; among these is the magnificent court house, which occupies a square, presenting a front on four streets: it is constructed of limestone, and erected at an expense of upward of one million of dollars. The custom house, another noble building, is fire proof, constructed of Missouri marble. The Lindell House is one of the most extensive and beautiful of hotels. The Mercantile Library building is a fine structure, having one of the best halls in the western states, capable of seating 2,300 persons. The library connected with the institution consists of upward of 14,000 volumes. The Library Association, among the curiosities in their possession, have the original model of John Fitch's steam engine, made about the year 1795; it is some two feet high, with a copper boiler. They also have a marble slab, about seven feet square, from the ruins of ancient Ninevah, covered with a figure in bas-relief and interesting cuneiform inscriptions. The *St. Louis University*, under the direction of the Catholics, has a spacious building in the city, with 18 instructors, and about 300 students, and some 15,000 volumes in its libraries. This institution was founded, in 1829, by members of the Society of Jesus, and was incorporated by the legislature in 1832. In the museum connected with the University, is the dagger of Cortez, 14 inches long, the blade consisting of two divisions, with an apparatus and spring in the hilt for containing and conveying poison. The Washington University was founded in 1853. The city contains various other excellent literary institutions: among these are several medical colleges. There are also hospitals, dispensaries, and other charities, for the medical care of the destitute. Among the charitable institutions, the most conspicuous are the Protestant and Catholic Orphan Asylums—the first under the direction of Protestant ladies, and the latter of the Sisters of Charity. The total value of the taxable property of St. Louis, for 1860, was about 100 millions of dollars.

The subjoined sketch of the history of St. Louis, is extracted from the London edition of the work of Abbe Domenech,* the original being in French:

St. Louis, the Queen of the West, was French by birth; her cradle was suspended in the forest watered by the Mississippi; her childhood was tried by many privations; and her adolescence was reached amid the terrors inspired by the Indian's cry. Her youth, though more calm, was scarcely more happy. Abandoned by her guardian, the Lion of Castile, she was again claimed by her ancient mother; but only to be forsaken anew. She then passed under the protecting wing of the American eagle, and became the metropolis of the Empire of the Deserts.



South-eastern view of the Court House, St. Louis.

M. d'Abadie, civil and military director-general, and governor of Louisiana, conceded, in 1762, to Messrs. Pierre Ligneste, Laclède, Antoine Maxan, and Company, the monopoly of the fur trade with the Indians of Mississippi and Missouri. M. Laclède, a man of remarkable intelligence, of an enterprising character, and the principal chief of the company, immediately prepared an expedition, with a view of forming a large establishment in the north-west. On the 3d of August, 1763, he started from New Orleans, and on the 3d of November following, he reached St. Genevieve, situated sixty miles south of where St. Louis is actually built.

At that epoch the French colony, established sixty years before in Illinois, was in a surprising state of prosperity. It had considerably augmented its importance since 1732, at which period France was beginning to realize her great conception of uniting Canada to Louisiana by an extensive line of military posts, that were

*"Seven Years Residence in the Great Deserts of North America, by the Abbe Em Domenech, Apostolical Missionary, Canon of Montpellier, Member of the Pontifical Academy Tiberina, and of the Geographical and Ethnographical Societies of France, etc." in two volumes.

to have been supported by forts, the strategic positions of which were admirably chosen. But when M. Laclède arrived in the country, Louis XV had already signed the shameful treaty by which he ceded to England, in a most blamable and inconsiderate manner, one of the finest regions of the globe, the possession of which had cost nearly a century of efforts, discoveries, and combats, besides enormous sums of money. By that treaty, which will cover with eternal ignominy the memory of Louis XV, France yielded up to great Britain the two Canadies, the immense territory of the northern lakes, and the rich states of Illinois, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Western Louisiana, as far as the Gulf of Mexico.

The Britannie frontiers, north, west, and south, were then surrounded by that French race, so antipathetic to the Saxon one. It enveloped them by its power and its immense territory, by an uninterrupted chain of fertile countries, which extend from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico, following the interminable and rich valley of the Mississippi, which winds round the English possessions like the coiling serpent whose innumerable folds entwined the Laocoon. Unhappily for France, the statesmen of her luxurious court were short-sighted in this matter; they did not know the value of our transatlantic dominions, nor foresee what the future might do for them. Occupied with miserable palace intrigues, they basely abandoned our finest colonies, and merely sought feebly to prolong their agony. Napoleon himself committed a great fault when he ceded Louisiana for fifteen millions. He thought that a bird in the hand was better than two in the bush; but what a bush he sold for such a sum! Louisiana, that of herself contains colossal wealth, did she not give birth to many powerful states by dismembering herself? Did she not draw toward Texas, Kansas, New Mexico, and California? When one thinks of this great and irreparable loss which Louis XV and Napoleon I caused France to suffer, one can not help sighing at the blindness of that fatal policy, which, for the sake of passing difficulties, from pusillanimous fear, or from the want of perfect knowledge of the resources and importance of the colonies, forgets the honor and interest of the empire it rules.

It was thus that in the time of M. Laclède, the Mississippi became the natural boundary of the French and English possessions; St. Genevieve was the only French settlement on the right bank of the river, all the others, being on the left, were made over to the English. After a short sojourn in that village, M. Laclède explored the country, and discovering sixty miles more to the north, a table-land seventy-five feet above the Mississippi, and covered with forests and fertile ground, he took possession of it and laid the foundation of a town, which he named St. Louis, in the presence of the French officers of the Chartres and of two young Creoles, Messrs. Auguste and Pierre Chouteau. We had the satisfaction of seeing the latter in 1847, during the festival celebrated at St. Louis in honor of Laclède.

Scarcely was the rising colony established, which was augmented by French, Creole, and Illinois emigrants, who would not remain under the English dominion, when it was greatly alarmed by the arrival of 400 Indians, who, without being hostile, were nevertheless very troublesome, on account of their continual demands for provisions and the daily robberies they committed. M. Laclède made all possible haste to rescue his establishment from the peril that menaced it, and immediately acted in a manner that showed his tact and his profound knowledge of the Indian character. The chieftains having appeared in his presence, addressed him in these terms:

"We are deserving of pity, for we are like ducks and geese seeking clear water whereon to rest, as also to find an easy existence. We know of no better place than where we are. We therefore intend to build our wigwams around your village. We shall be your children, and you will be our father."

Laclède put an end to the conversation by promising to give his answer the next day, which he did in the following manner:

"You told me yesterday that you were like ducks and geese that seek a fair country wherein to rest and live at ease. You told me that you were worthy of pity; that you had not found a more favorable spot to establish yourselves in than this one; that you would build your village around me, and that we could live together as friends. I shall now answer you as a kind father; and will tell you that, if you imitate the ducks and geese, you follow improvident guides; for, if they had any forethought, they would not establish

themselves on clear water where they may be perceived by the eagle that will pounce on them. It would not have been so had they chosen a retired spot well shaded with trees. You, Missourians, will not be devoured by birds of prey, but by the red men, who have fought so long against you, and who have already so seriously reduced your number. At this very moment they are not far from us, watching the English to prevent them from taking possession of their new territories. If they find you here they will slay your warriors and make your wives and children slaves. This is what will happen to you, if, as you say, you follow the example of the ducks and geese, instead of listening to the counsels of men who reflect. Chieftains and warriors, think now, if it is not more prudent for you to go away quietly rather than to be crushed by your enemies, superior to you in number, in the presence of your massacred sires, of your wives and children torn to pieces and thrown to the dogs and vultures. Remember that it is a good father who speaks to you; meditate on what he has said, and return this evening with your answer."

In the evening the entire tribe of the Missourians presented itself in a body before M. Laclède, and announced to him that its intention was to follow his advice; the chiefs then begged of him to have pity on the women and children, by giving them some provisions, and a little powder to the warriors. M. Laclède acceded liberally to their request, and sent them off next day well supplied and happy.

On the 17th of July, 1753, M. de St. Ange de Bellerive resigned the command of the frontiers to the English, and came to St. Louis with his troops and the civic officers. His arrival favored the definitive organization of the colony; St. Louis became the capital of Upper Louisiana, and M. de St. Ange was appointed governor of the place. But Louis XV had made, in 1763, another treaty, by which he ceded to Spain the remainder of our possessions in North America. This treaty, kept secret during a year, completed the measure of humiliations and losses that France had to endure under such a reign. The official news of it was only received at New Orleans on the 21st of April, 1764, and the consternation it spread throughout Upper and Lower Louisiana was such that the governor, M. d'Abadie, died of grief. Serious disturbances were the consequence, and the tragical events which took place under the command of Gen. O'Reilly, of sanguinary memory, caused the administration of Upper Louisiana to remain in the hands of the French for several years. It was only on the 11th of August, 1768, that the Spanish troops were able to take possession of St. Louis for the first time, and even then they could not hold the position above eleven months. At last, peace being restored, the Spaniards again became masters of all the country in 1770, five years before the death of M. de St. Ange, who expired at St. Louis in 1775, aged seventy-six years. M. Laclède died at the Post of the Arkansas on the 20th of July, 1778, leaving no children.

In 1789, St. Louis was unsuccessfully attacked by 1,000 Indians and Englishmen, from Michillimackinac, who had received orders to seize upon the town on account of the part the Spaniards had taken in the war of American independence.

Spain never sought to derive any advantage from the resources of Upper Louisiana: it would seem as if she merely considered that mighty region as a barrier against the encroachments of her neighbor on her Mexican possessions. This policy alone can explain her indifference with regard to the government of that country. When she took possession of all the territory situated to the west of the Mississippi, she found there a French population already acclimated, civilized, and inured to fatigues, owing to the long wars it sustained against the English and the Indians. The prospect of a calm and peaceable existence had assembled this population on the borders of Arkansas, of the Mississippi, and of the Missouri, where it only awaited a protecting government, to enable it to give to industry and agriculture all possible development. All that Spain had to do was to open markets for its produce, and for exchanges with the southern colonies. This extensive empire, possessing the largest natural advantages, bounded by the Mississippi, the Missouri, and the Pacific Ocean, might have, owing to the preponderance that it could have acquired (as we witness in our days), changed the course of events which have taken place in Europe since that epoch. France could not aspire to such power as long as she possessed Canada, but she should have thought of it when she abandoned that colony. The immense results obtained by the liberal institutions of the United States show clearly, in the present day, that the loss of

Canada would have turned to our advantage, and that by developing the produce of the possessions which we still retained to the west of the Mississippi, we should soon have been amply compensated for the sacrifices made in 1763, after the taking of Quebec. Such was the opinion of the intelligent men of France. Turgot, our celebrated statesman, in particular, foresaw the advantages to be derived from such a policy, and he even submitted a plan to the king by means of which that vast region he called Equinoctial France, was to become densely populated in a short time. But, as M. Nicollet observes in his essay on the primitive history of St. Louis, he was treated as a visionary.

What was easy for France was still much more so for Spain; but instead of adopting this simple policy—liberal and grand in its results—Spain contented herself with isolating the colonists and the Indians of Missouri and of Mississippi, imposing an arbitrary government upon them, checking all communication between the neighboring populations; establishing restrictions on importation, prohibiting foreign competition, restricting emigration, granting exclusive privileges, and making, without any conditions, concessions of lands, etc. It is not surprising, then, that she complains that her colonies cost her more than she realized by them. Nowhere, either in her laws or in her decrees, is there to be found a plan adopted with a view of developing the natural and moral resources of these countries. As the government appeared only to occupy itself with the exigencies of each day, in like manner the inhabitants did not seem to think of the morrow. The Creoles of Upper Louisiana, who were the descendants of a brave and enterprising nation, not finding in this state of things any support for their physical and moral faculties, penetrated into the depths of the forests, got amid a multitude of savage tribes whom they had not heard of before, began to explore the regions situated between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, and created the fur trade in that extensive portion of North America. In this way was formed that class of intrepid men called *voyageurs* or *engages*, of whom we have already spoken, and who were as necessary in the plains of the west as are the Canadian *voyageurs* in the frozen countries of the north and north-west.

Meanwhile America had attained her independence, and France was commencing her revolution, when, all of a sudden, on the 9th of July, 1803, at seven o'clock in the evening, the inhabitants of St. Louis learned that Spain had re-ceded Louisiana to Napoleon, who, in turn had sold it to the United States. We will make no remark on the profound sensation produced by this unexpected news. We will merely observe that the colonists could scarcely recover from their astonishment on hearing that they had become republicans, and seeing a multitude of judges, lawyers, notaries, tax-gatherers, etc., arriving among them. They were even less able to understand that liberty which obliged them to leave their homes to vote at elections, or to serve as jurors. They had allowed civilization to advance without taking any notice of it. Their existence was so isolated, so simplified, that they lost sight of the advantages of social life. They possessed no public schools, and the missionaries, being too few in number, were seldom able to visit or instruct them in their religious duties. The object of their material life did not go beyond the domestic circle, the virtue and honesty of which were proverbial. They knew nothing of notaries, lawyers, or judges; and the prison remained empty during thirty years. To give an idea of the simplicity of the Creoles, we can not do better than relate an incident that took place a few years after the cession of Louisiana to the United States.

A Creole from Missouri was lounging about a sale of negro slaves on the borders of the Mississippi, in Lower Louisiana. The merchant, who was from Kentucky, asked him if he wished to buy *anything*: "Yes," replied the Missourian, "I want a negro." Having made his choice, he inquired the price of the one he selected. "Five hundred piastres," replied the merchant; "but, according to custom, you have *one year to pay*." At this proposition the purchaser became embarrassed; the thought of being liable to such a debt during an entire year annoyed him greatly. "No, no!" said he to the merchant, "I prefer paying you at once six hundred piastres, and letting the matter be ended." "Very well," said the obliging Kentuckian, "I will do *anything* you please to make the affair convenient to you." And the bargain was concluded.

The Spanish troops departed from Louisiana on the 3d of November, 1804. The American governor, W. H. Harrison, who had the chief command of the Indian territories of Upper Louisiana, organized the civil and judicial power of that country; and on the 2d of July, 1805, Gen. James Wilkinson established there, by order of congress, a territorial government, of which St. Louis was the capital.

The great military event in the annals of St. Louis was the attack upon the town by the English and Indians from Mackinaw, in 1780. The citizens had intelligence the previous fall of the contemplated expedition, and thereupon fortified the town with a rude stockade six feet high, made by two rows of upright palisades, a few feet apart, filled in between with earth. The outline of the stockade described a semi-circle around the place, resting its extremities upon the river, above and below the town, flanked by a small fort at each extremity. Three gates gave opening to the country in the rear, each defended by a piece of ordnance, kept well charged. Monette, in his History of the Mississippi Valley, gives these particulars:

The British commandant at Michillimackinac, hearing of the disasters of the British arms in Florida, conceived the idea of leading an expedition upon his own responsibility against the Spanish settlement of St. Louis. Early in the spring he had assembled one hundred and forty regular British troops and Canadian Frenchmen, and fourteen hundred Indian warriors for the campaign. From the southern extremity of Lake Michigan this host of savages, under British leaders, marched across to the Mississippi, and encamped within a few miles of St. Louis. The town had been fortified for temporary defense, and the hostile host made a regular Indian investment of the place. Skirmishes and desultory attacks continued for several days, during which many were killed, and others were taken captive by the Indians. Much of the stock of cattle and horses belonging to the place was killed or carried off.

The people at length, believing a general attack was contemplated, and having lost confidence in their commandant's courage, or in his preparations for defense, sent a special request to Col. Clark, then commanding at Kaskaskia, to come to their aid with such force as he could assemble. Col. Clark immediately made preparation to march to their relief. Having assembled nearly five hundred men under his command, he marched to the bank of the Mississippi, a short distance below the town of St. Louis. Here he remained encamped for further observations. On the sixth of May the grand Indian attack was made, when Col. Clark, crossing the river, marched up to the town to take part in the engagement. The sight of the Americans, or the "*Long-knives*," as they were called, under the command of the well-known Col. Clark, caused the savages to abandon the attack and seek safety in flight. They refused to participate in any further hostilities, and reproached the British commandant with duplicity in having assured them that he would march them to fight the Spaniards only, whereas now they were brought against the Spaniards and the Americans. They soon afterward abandoned the British standard, and returned to their towns, near Lakes Superior and Michigan.

An old settler, writing for the Missouri Republican, in 1826, and the St. Louis Sketch Book, gives these historical items:

A lapse of twenty years has ensued since I first obtained a residence in this rising town. . . . It did not, when I first knew it, appear to possess even the germ of the materials which have since been so successfully used in making it the mart of commerce and the seat of plenty. Then, with some exceptions, it was the residence of the indolent trader or trapper, or more desperate adventurers. . . . Twenty years ago there were no brick buildings in St. Louis. The houses were generally of wood, built in a fashion peculiar to the country, and daubed with mud. There were, however, some of the better order, belonging to the first settlers of the town, but whose massive walls of stone were calculated to excite the wonder of the modern beholder, giving the idea of an antique fortress. What was then called Chouteau's Hill, but which has since lost that distinctive appellation, was nothing else than a barren waste, over which the wind whistled in its unobstructed course, if we except only an occasional cumbersome fortification, intended for a defense, and evidencing the poverty of the country in military as in other talent. Then, and for a long while after, the streets were intolerably bad, resembling the roads in Ohio, where

it is related of a man that his hat was taken from his head just as he was disappearing forever in the regions of mud.

Twenty years since, and down to a much later period, the commerce of the country, on the Mississippi, was carried on in Mackinaw batteaux and keel boats. A voyage performed in one of the latter kind was a fearful undertaking; and the return trip from New Orleans was considered an expeditious one if made in *ninety days*. When an increased commerce took place, our streets were thronged with *voyageurs*, of all ages, countries and complexions. They were a source of constant trouble to a weak and inefficient police, with whom they delighted to kick up a row. Deprived, by the introduction of steamboats, of their usual means of living, and like the savage averse to settled life, they have almost entirely disappeared. At the time of which we write, the traveler who made a journey to the Atlantic states, did not resolve upon it without mature deliberation. . . . It then required from thirty to forty days to travel to Philadelphia. . . . The morals or religion of the people can not be defined. They had, it is true, vague notions of such things, but they were of so quiescent a character as to be easily set aside when in opposition to their pleasure or interest. There was but one church, and after a resort to this it was no uncommon thing to pass the remainder of the Sabbath evening in dancing or whist, for St. Louis then contained, at most, but a few hundred people."

"Previous to the year 1829," says the Sketch Book of St. Louis, "there was no Protestant church in St. Louis, but in that year the first Presbyterian church was built, and the Rev. Artemus Bullard engaged as the minister. . . . There were places where the Methodists, Presbyterians, Baptists, Universalists, etc., held divine service, but none of them possessed church edifices until this year."

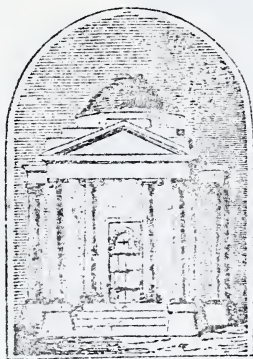
In 1844, another flood, equaling that which took place in the days of Crusat, visited the Mississippi. The river rose rapidly until the entire American bottom was submerged. Steamboats and all descriptions of water craft were to be seen winding their way through the woods opposite the city, conveying passengers to and from the coal hills on the Illinois shore, a distance of about twelve miles. This flood was very disastrous in its character, almost totally destroying Illinois town, which had become a village of several thousand inhabitants. The damage was immense, while not a few lives were lost, thousands of hogs, horses, cattle, sheep, fowls, etc., were drowned. 'Many who, before the flood, were in affluent circumstances, found themselves beggared. This was a marked event upon the trade of St. Louis, and she had scarcely recovered from the effects, when another calamity befel her. Late in the fall of 1848, that dreadful scourge, the cholera, made its appearance; the approach of cold weather stayed in a great measure the ravages of disease, but in the spring it developed itself in full force. . . . The disease now assumed a more bold and formidable appearance, and instead of stalking through dirty lanes and filthy alleys, it boldly walked the streets. . . . Funeral processions crowded every street. . . . The hum of trade was hushed. The levee was a desert.'

When the disease was raging at its fiercest, the city was doomed to another horror—May 17, 1849, it was burned—fifteen squares were laid in ashes. The fire commenced on the steamer White Cloud. At the commencement the wind was blowing stiffly, forcing the boat directly into shore, which circumstance contributed seriously to the marine disaster. The wind set into the wharf, and although the cables of all the boats were hauled in, and they drifted out into the current, yet the *flaming vessel* seemed to outstrip them all in the speed with which she traveled down stream. . . . In a short time, perhaps thirty minutes, twenty-three vessels were burnt. . . . Fifteen blocks of houses were destroyed and injured, causing a loss of ten millions of dollars. Olive street was the commencement in the city, and with the exception of one building, the entire space down to Market street was laid in ruins. The progress of the flames was stayed by blowing up a portion of the buildings below Market street with powder: in doing this, although timely warning was given, several persons lost their lives."

In July, 1847, came the Gen. Pike, the first steamer which arrived at St. Louis. She was commanded by Capt. Jacob Reed, and was built on Bear Grass Creek, near Louisville. In 1847, on the anniversary of the city's birth, a miniature representation of the boat was exhibited, and became the most curious feature of the celebration, as showing the changes in steamboat architecture. "This miniature representation was about twenty feet long; the hull that of a barge, and the cabin on the lower deck run up on the inside of the running board. The wheels were exposed, being without a wheel-house—she was propelled by a low pressure engine, with a single chimney and a large *walking beam*. The crew were supplied with poles, and where the current proved too strong for the steam, they used the poles, as on keel boats, to help her along. It was mounted on wheels, and drawn by eight white horses. The boat was manned by a crew of steamboat captains, who appeared in the dress usually worn by the officers and men in their various stations."

Bloody Island, opposite St. Louis, near the Illinois shore of the Mississippi, is the terminus of the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad. It received its name from the circumstance of its being the dueling ground for this region. It is within the limits of Illinois, and at the time of high freshets is partially covered with water. It has a growth of large forest trees. This spot was selected by duelists from its being neutral ground: the island was for

some time disputed territory between the states of Illinois and Missouri. A fatal contest of this kind ensued between Thomas Biddle, of St. Louis, and one of his friends, in which both were killed. The origin of the duel seems to have been some jocose remark made by the antagonist of Mr. Biddle in regard to his (Mr. Biddle's) family affairs. Mrs. Biddle foolishly considering herself insulted, gave her husband no rest until he had challenged the author of the remark to mortal combat. Having passed over to Bloody Island, they fought at the distance of some three or four paces apart, and both fell mortally wounded. Mrs. Biddle, overwhelmed at the fatal consequences of her attempt to avenge her injured feelings, devoted the remainder of her life to penitence, and her fortune to charity. The annexed engraving is a view of a monument erected in memory of husband and wife, on the premises of St. Mary's



BIDDLE MONUMENT, ST. LOUIS.

Over the door are the words, *Pray for the souls of Thomas and Anne Biddle.*

Orphan Asylum, on Tenth-street, under the charge of the order of the "Daughters of Charity." The monument is about 20 feet high: the following words are affixed over the door, "Pray for the souls of Thomas and Anne Biddle."

The following inscriptions are from monuments within the city limits:

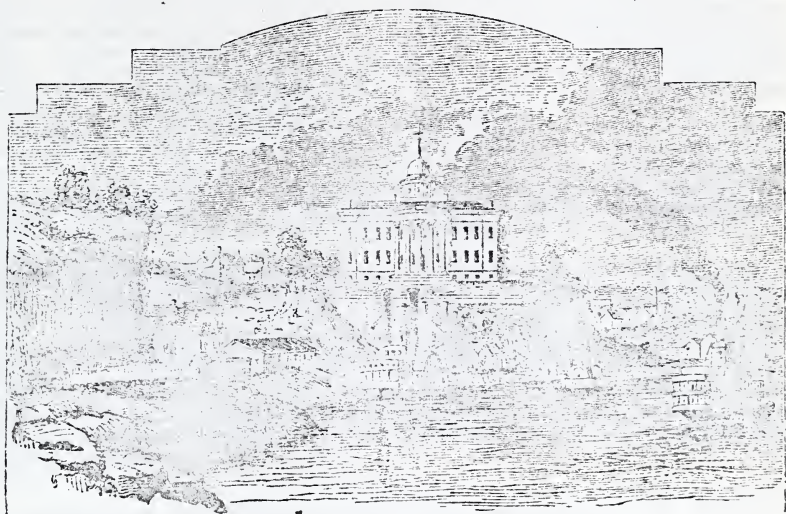
In memory of one whose name needs no eulogy, JOSEPH M. WHITE, late Delegate in Congress from the Territory of Florida. Born in Franklin county, Kentucky, 8th of Oct., 1798, died in St. Louis, at the residence of his brother, Thomas J. White, M.D., the 19th day of October, 1839.

THOMAS BARBOUR, M.D., son of the Hon. P. P. Barbour, of Virginia. Born Aug. 26, 1810, and died June 18, 1849. In all the relations of life, he illustrated the strength and beauty of Christian principle—ardent affection, generous friendship, and fervent charity were the spontaneous emotions of a heart imbued with the holy desire of glorifying God and doing good to man. As a practitioner of medicine he had attained a distinguished eminence. With the Medical Department of the University of Missouri, his name is associated as one of its founders and most able and faithful teachers. With the early history of the Central Presbyterian Church, of which he was an Elder, his name is recorded as one of its brightest ornaments.

JEFFERSON CITY, the capital of Missouri is situated on the right bank of Missouri River, on elevated, uneven and somewhat rocky ground, 125 miles W. of St. Louis. It contains the state house, a state penitentiary, the governor's house, several schools, 5 churches, 2 banks, and about 3,500 inhabitants, of whom near one half are Germans or of German origin. The state house is built of stone, at an expense of \$250,000, and presents a magnificent appearance as it is approached sailing up the river from the eastward.

Over the door of the main entrance of the capitol is the following inscription:

"Erected Anno Domini, 1838. L. W. Boggs, Governor; P. C. Glover, Sec'y of State; H. H. Baber, Aud. Pub. Accts; W. B. Napton, Att'y General; A. McClellan, Treasurer, Commissioners. S. Hills, Architect."



East view of Jefferson City.

The view annexed presents the appearance of the Capitol and other buildings, as the city is entered upon the Pacific Railroad. The bluff shown is 80 feet high, and on its summit is the residence of Gen. J. L. Minor, formerly secretary of the state. The Railroad Depot is at the foot of the bluff on the left; the Capitol on Capitol Hill is in the central part, at the base of which is the Ferry and City Landing.

The first white persons who located themselves within the limits of Jefferson City were John Wier and a Dr. Brown. Wier, who appears to have been a squatter, built his cabin on the spot where J. T. Rogers' (late mayor) house now stands. Wier's Creek, at the foot of Capitol Hill, was named after him. Dr. Brown, said to have been from Ireland, located himself on the declivity of Capitol Hill. William Jones, a bricklayer, kept the first ferry and house of entertainment at this place; he was succeeded by Mr. Thomas Rogers, the father of the mayor. Dr. Stephen C. Dorris, father of Dr. A. P. Dorris, was the first regular physician; he was succeeded by Dr. Bolton, and he in turn by Dr. Mills. Robert A. Ewing (afterward judge of the county court), was the first resident lawyer. Judge Wells was the next. Robert Jones was the first merchant: he had his store at the base of the Capitol Hill, near the ferry and city wharf. Among his purchases was that of two or three barrels of coffee, which at that time was considered a bold and hazardous speculation, as it was supposed it would take a long period to sell such an amount.

The first school was taught by Jesse F. Roys, an itinerant teacher from North Carolina; he was succeeded by Hiram H. Baber, Esq., a native of Virginia, and now, with one exception, the oldest inhabitant of Jefferson City. The school house was about half way between the railroad depot and the penitentiary. Jason Harrison, Esq., the first clerk of Cole county, was a native of Maryland; he came into Missouri in 1811, and into Jefferson City in 1831. The first brick structure erected was a one story building, 16 feet square, built by Wm. Jones, and occupied as the state treasury office; it stood opposite the Methodist Church. The first state house was built of brick, by Reuben Garnett, and stood in a lot adjoining the governor's house. It was accidentally burnt in Nov., 1837, and all the state papers, except those in the auditor's office destroyed. The seat of government was located in 1821, laid out in 1822, and the first sale of lots was made in 1823. The first trustees of the town were Adam Hope, John C. Gordon, and Josiah Ramsay, jr. The first governor resident in Jefferson City, was John Miller, and a man of great wealth. He died while member of Congress, and was buried at St. Louis.

The first printing press was started here in 1826, by Calvin Gunn, who, it is believed, was from Connecticut. It was called the "Jeffersonian Republican." The first house for public worship here was erected by the Methodists and Baptists: this was in 1838. The Episcopal church was erected in 1842; the first resident Episcopal clergyman was Rev. Wm. L. Hommann. The first Presbyterian church was built about the year 1845, and the first resident clergyman was Rev. Hiram S. Goodrich, D.D., from the eastern states, who came here about 1843. The Catholics, who are the largest religious body in the city, erected their first house of worship in 1847: their present handsome structure was built in 1857. The state penitentiary was opened about 1835: the first warden was Gen. Lewis Bolton, and for about three months he had but one convict under his charge, who was put here for horse stealing or some kindred crime. This prisoner was much delighted when the next convict arrived, for he was quite weary of solitude.

The Missouri River is about 1,000 yards wide at this place, its ordinary current three and a half miles an hour, and its full four inches to the mile. The ordinary rise of water here is from 10 to 15 feet above low water mark. The highest floods occur annually in June, like the annual overflow of the Nile in Egypt. It is caused by the melting of the snow in the Rocky Mountains, nearly 3,000 miles distant. One of the greatest rise of waters known was on the 24th of June, 1844, at which time the water rose *thirty feet* above low water mark.

In this section the principal fish are the cat, buffalo, and shovel fish: sturgeon are also taken. The cat fish ordinarily weigh from 3 to 25 lbs. In some instances they have been known to weigh 200 lbs. The method by which they are taken is called "*jugging for cats*." A single line about four feet in length, having a hook baited with flesh, is attached to the handle of a gallon jug and then thrown into the middle of the current of the river. When the bait is swallowed it is known by the sinking of the jug, which acts like a cork: the fisherman thereupon takes up the line and secures the fish. The fisherman's usual method is to go up the stream, throw in his jugs, and float down with them, hugging the shore with his boat, so as to be in a position to closely watch his jugs, of which he can generally oversee some 10 or 12 at a time.

The following inscriptions are copied from monuments in the Jefferson City graveyard:

Erected by the State of Missouri to the memory of Gov. THOMAS REYNOLDS, who died Feb. 9, 1844, aged 48 years. He was born in Bracken county, Kentucky, March 12, 1796: in early life he became a citizen of the State of Illinois, and there filled the several offices of Clerk of the House of Representatives, Attorney General, Speaker of the House of Representatives, and Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. In 1829, he removed to the State of Missouri, and was successively Speaker of the House of Representatives, Judge of the Second Judicial Circuit, and died Governor of the State. His life was one of honor, virtue and patriotism, and in every situation in which he was placed, he discharged his duty faithfully.

In memory of PETER G. GLOVER, born in Buckingham county, Va., Jan. 14, 1792; died in Osage county, Oct. 27, 1851, and lies buried here. He emigrated to Kentucky in early life, then to Missouri, where he filled the important public offices of the Justice of the County Court, Representative from Callaway, Senator from Cole, Auditor of Public Accounts, Superintendent of Common Schools, and Treasurer of the State, to the satisfaction of the people. As a father, husband, and friend, he was without reproach.

WM. A. ROBARDS, late Attorney General of the State of Missouri, born in Ky., May 3, 1817; died Sept. 3, 1851. Erected by the State of Missouri, of which he was a worthy citizen, and its able and faithful officer, having filled several offices of public trust.

New Madrid, the seat of New Madrid county, is on the Mississippi, 150 miles below St. Louis, in the south-eastern corner of the state, and has about 1,000 inhabitants. This is one of the old towns of Missouri, and the earliest American settlement west of the Mississippi River. Through the diplomatic talents of Colonel Wilkinson, the Spanish governor of Louisiana was induced to adopt a policy of conciliation to the western people, in hopes of attaching them to the Spanish government, and so forming a political union with the

Louisianians, that should terminate in a dismemberment of the east from the west, and an incorporation of the latter under the Spanish crown. Says Monette:

The first step toward the accomplishment of this desirable object was the plan of forming American settlements in Upper Louisiana, as well as in the Florida district of Lower Louisiana. A large American settlement was to be formed on the west side of the Mississippi, between the mouth of the Ohio and the St. Francis River. General Morgan, an American citizen, received a large grant of land about seventy miles below the mouth of the Ohio, upon which he was to introduce and settle an American colony. Soon afterward and in 1788, General Morgan arrived with his colony, and located it about seventy miles below the mouth of the Ohio, upon the ancient alluvions which extend westward to the Whitewater Creek, within the present county of New Madrid, in Missouri. Here, upon the beautiful rolling plains, he laid off the plan of a magnificent city, which, in honor of the Spanish capital, he called "New Madrid." The extent and plan of the new city was but little, if any, inferior to the old capital which it was to commemorate. Spacious streets, extensive public squares, avenues, and promenades were tastefully laid off to magnify and adorn the future city. In less than twelve months from its first location, it had assumed, according to Major Stoddart, the appearance of a regularly built town, with numerous temporary houses distributed over a high and beautiful undulatory plain. Its latitude was determined to be 36 deg. 30 min. north. In the center of the site, and about one mile from the Mississippi, was a beautiful lake, to be inclosed by the future streets of the city.

This policy was continued for nearly two years, in hopes of gaining over the western people to an adherence to the Spanish interests. Nor was it wholly unsuccessful. In the meantime, many individuals in Kentucky, as well as on the Cumberland, had become favorably impressed toward a union with Louisiana under the Spanish crown, and a very large portion of them had been highly dissatisfied with the policy of the Federal government, because it had failed to secure for them the free navigation of the river, either by formal negotiation or by force of arms. But this state of mitigated feeling toward the Spanish authorities was of but short duration.

New Madrid was nearly ruined by the *great earthquakes* of the winter of 1811-12, it being the center of the most violent shocks. The first occurred in the night of 15th Dec., 1811, and they were repeated at intervals for two or three months, being felt from Pittsburg to New Orleans. By them the Little Prairie settlement, thirty miles below this place, was entirely broken up, and Great Prairie nearly ruined. The graveyard at New Madrid, with its sleeping tenants, was precipitated into the river, and the town dwindled to insignificance and decay. Thousands of acres in this section of the country sunk, and multitudes of ponds and lakes were created in their places. "The earth burst in what are called sand blows. Earth, sand, coal, and water were thrown up to great heights in the air." The Mississippi was dammed up and flowed backward; birds descended from the air, and took refuge in the bosoms of people that were passing. The whole country was inundated. A great number of boats that were passing on the river were sunk, and whole crews perished; one or two that were fastened to islands went down with them. The country being but sparsely settled, and the buildings mostly logs, the loss of life was less than it otherwise would have been. Col. John Shaw gives these reminiscences of this event.*

While lodging about thirty miles north of New Madrid, on the 14th of December, 1811, about two o'clock in the morning, occurred a heavy shock of an earthquake. The house where I was stopping, was partly of wood and partly of brick structure; the brick portion all fell, but I and the family all fortunately escaped unhurt. At another shock, about two o'clock in the morning of the 7th of February, 1812, I was in New Madrid, when nearly two thousand people, of all ages, fled in terror from their falling dwellings, in that place

* "Personal Narrative of Col. John Shaw, of Marquette county, Wisconsin," published in the Collections of the Historical Society of Wisconsin.

and the surrounding country, and directed their course about thirty miles north to Tywappety Hill, on the western bank of the Mississippi, about seven miles back from the river. This was the first high ground above New Madrid, and here the fugitives formed an encampment. It was proposed that all should kneel, and engage in supplicating God's mercy, and all simultaneously, Catholics and Protestants, knelt and offered solemn prayer to their Creator.

About twelve miles back toward New Madrid, a young woman about seventeen years of age, named Betsey Masters, had been left by her parents and family, her leg having been broken below the knee by the falling of one of the weight-poles of the roof of the cabin; and, though a total stranger, I was the only person who would consent to return and see whether she still survived. Receiving a description of the locality of the place, I started, and found the poor girl upon a bed, as she had been left, with some water and corn bread within her reach. I cooked up some food for her, and made her condition as comfortable as circumstances would allow, and returned the same day to the grand encampment. Miss Masters eventually recovered.

In abandoning their homes, on this emergency, the people only stopped long enough to get their teams, and hurry in their families and some provisions. It was a matter of doubt among them, whether water or fire would be most likely to burst forth, and cover all the country. The timber land around New Madrid sunk five or six feet, so that the lakes and lagoons, which seemed to have their beds pushed up, discharged their waters over the sunken lands. Through the fissures caused by the earthquake, were forced up vast quantities of a hard, jet black substance, which appeared very smooth, as though worn by friction. It seemed a very different substance from either anthracite or bituminous coal.*

This *kegira*, with all its attendant appalling circumstances, was a most heart-rending scene, and had the effect to constrain the most wicked and profane, earnestly to plead to God in prayer for mercy. In less than three months, most of these people returned to their homes, and though the earthquakes continued occasionally with less destructive effects, they became so accustomed to the recurring vibrations, that they paid little or no regard to them, not even interrupting or checking their dances, frolics, and vices.

Father Cartwright, in his autobiography, gives us some facts to show that the earthquakes proved an element of strength to the Methodists. He tells us:

In the winter of 1812 we had a very severe earthquake; it seemed to stop the current of the Mississippi, broke flatboats loose from their moorings, and opened large cracks or fissures in the earth. This earthquake struck terror to thousands of people, and under the mighty panic hundreds and thousands crowded to, and joined the different churches. There were many very interesting incidents connected with the shaking of the earth at this time; two I will name. I had preached in Nashville the night before the second dreadful shock came, to a large congregation. Early the next morning I arose and walked out on the hill near the house where I had preached, when I saw a negro woman coming down the hill to the spring, with an empty pail upon her head. (It is very common for negroes to carry water this way without touching the pail with either hand.) When she got within a few rods of where I stood, the earth began to tremble and jar; chimneys were thrown down, scaffolding around many new buildings fell with a loud crash, hundreds of the citizens suddenly awoke, and sprang into the streets; loud screaming followed, for many thought the day of judgment was come. The young mistresses of the above-named negro woman came running after her, and begging her to pray for them. She raised the shout and said to them, "My Jesus is coming in the clouds of heaven, and I can't wait to pray for you now; I must go and meet him. I told you so, that he would come, and you would not believe me. Farewell. Hallelujah! Jesus is coming, and I am ready. Hallelujah! Amen." And on she went, shouting and clapping her hands, with the empty pail on her head.

Near Russellville, Logan county, Kentucky, lived old Brother Valentine Cook, of very precious memory, with his wife Tabitha. Brother Cook was a graduate at Cokesbury College at an early day in the history of Methodism in these United States. He was a very pious, successful pioneer preacher, but, for the want of a sufficient support for a rising and rapidly increasing family, he had located, and was teaching school at the time of the above

* The late Hon. Lewis F. Linn, a resident of St. Genevieve, and for many years a member of the United States senate from Missouri, and a man of science, addressed a letter, in 1836, to the chairman of the committee on commerce, in which he speaks of the New Madrid earthquakes, and distinctly mentions water, sand, and coal issuing from the vast chasms opened by the convulsions.

named earthquake. He and his wife were in bed when the earth began to shake and tremble. He sprang out of bed, threw open the door, and began to shout, and started, with nothing on but his night-clothes. He steered his course east, shouting every step, saying, "My Jesus is coming." His wife took after him, and at the top of her voice cried out, "O Mr. Cook, don't leave me."

"O Tabby," said he, "my Jesus is coming, and I can not wait for you;" and on he went, shouting at every jump, "*My Jesus is coming; I can't wait for you, Tabby.*"

The years of the excitement by these earthquakes hundreds joined the Methodist Episcopal Church, and though many were sincere, and stood firm, yet there were hundreds that no doubt had joined them from mere fright.

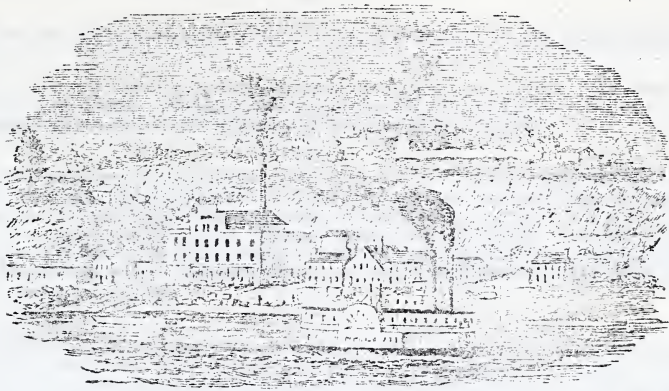
The earthquake gave Tecumseh, the Shawnee chieftain, the reputation of a prophet among the Indians of Alabama. A few months previous to this event, he was on his mission to the southern Indians, to unite all the tribes of the south with those of the north in his grand scheme of exterminating the whole white race from the wide extent of the Mississippi valley—from the lakes of the north to the Gulf of Mexico. Drake, in his memoir of Tecumseh, gives this anecdote:

On his return from Florida, Tecumseh went among the Creeks in Alabama, urging them to unite with the Seminoles. Arriving at Tuckhabatchee, a Creek town on the Tallapoosa River, he made his way to the lodge of the chief, called the Big Warrior. He explained his object, delivered his war talk, presented a bundle of sticks, gave a peace of wampum and a hatchet; all which the Big Warrior took. When Tecumseh, reading the intentions and spirit of the Big Warrior, looked him in the eye, and pointing his finger toward his face, said: "Your blood is white; you have taken my talk, and the sticks, and the wampum, and the hatchet, but you do not mean to fight; I know the reason; you do not believe the Great Spirit has sent me; you shall know; I leave Tuckhabatchee directly, and shall go straight to Detroit; when I arrive there, I will stamp on the ground with my foot, and shake down every house in Tuckhabatchee." So saying, he turned and left the Big Warrior in utter amazement, at both his manner and his threat, and pursued his journey. The Indians were struck no less with his conduct than was the Big Warrior, and began to dread the arrival of the day when the threatened calamity would befall them. They met often and talked over this matter, and counted the days carefully, to know the time when Tecumseh would reach Detroit. The morning they had fixed upon, as the period of his arrival, at last came. A mighty rumbling was heard—the Indians all ran out of their houses—the earth began to shake; when at last, sure enough, every house in Tuckhabatchee was shaken down! The exclamation was in every mouth, "Tecumseh has got to Detroit!" The effect was electrical. The message he had delivered to the Big Warrior was believed, and many of the Indians took their rifles and prepared for the war. The reader will not be surprised to learn that an earthquake had produced all this; but he will be, doubtless, that it should happen on the very day on which Tecumseh arrived at Detroit; and, in exact fulfillment of his threat. It was the famous earthquake of New Madrid.

LEXINGTON, the county seat of Fayette, is situated for the most part on high grounds, on the south bank of the Missouri. The bluffs at the landing being about 200 feet above the river, the city is but partially seen from the decks of passing steamers. It is 125 miles above Jefferson City, and 250 from St. Louis. It contains the county buildings, 8 churches, the Masonic College, a flourishing institution, under the patronage of the Masonic fraternity of the state, and about 5,000 inhabitants.

Fayette, the county in which Lexington is situated, ranks the second in wealth in Missouri. Hemp is the most important production. Inexhaustible beds of bituminous coal are found in almost every part of the county, and the soil is rich and fertile. The Messrs. McGrew's establishment for the manufacture of bale rope, at Lexington landing, is admirably constructed. The hemp is unloaded at the upper story, and passes through the various stages of its manufacture, till it comes out bales of rope, ready for transportation to market, in the warehouse below. The machinery is moved by

steam, the coal to produce which is dug out of the earth a few feet only from the building. Eight tons of rope can be manufactured daily.



View of Lexington Landing.

The engraving shows the appearance of the steamboat landing as it appears from the point on the opposite side of Missouri River. The Messrs. McGraw's Hemp Factory, Flouring Mill, etc., are seen in the central part; the road to the city back from the bluffs appears on the left; the places from whence coal is taken on the right.

Lexington was originally laid out about a mile back from the river, which, at that period, was hardly considered fit for navigation, goods being principally transported by land. The present city, being an extension of the old town, was commenced in 1839. At that time, the site on which the present court house stands was a cornfield, owned by James Aull, brother to Robert Aull, the president of the Bank of Lexington, both of whom were natives of New Castle, Del. The first court house was erected in the ancient part of Lexington, and is now occupied as a Female Seminary, a flourishing institution under the patronage of the Baptists. The first house of worship in Lexington, was erected about 1831 or 1832, by the Cumberland and the Old School Presbyterians. It was a small frame building, which stood a few rods west of the old court house. Rev. John L. Yantis, now president of the Theological College at Richmond, was one of the first preachers. The inhabitants previously attended public worship in the country, back from the river. The Baptist and Methodist churches were erected in 1849. The Episcopal church is a recent structure; the first minister who officiated was Rev. St. Michael Fackler, now a missionary in Oregon. The Dutch Reformed Church bought their meeting house of the Christians or Campbellite Baptists, in 1856.

The first regular public house in the modern part of Lexington, was the house next the residence of Robert Aull, the president of the bank, on the summit of the bluff. This spot commands an extensive prospect up and down the river, showing Wellington, 8 miles distant, also Camden, in Ray county, some 8 or 10 miles distant in a direct line, but 18 by the river. The first regular ferryman was William Jack, a Methodist class leader and exhorter, a man much esteemed for his Christian life and conversation. In 1827, C. R. Morehead, cashier of the Farmers' Bank, built and loaded the first flatboat, in which he transported the first tobacco raised for export in the county. This cargo, which consisted of forty six hogsheads, with a quantity of bees-wax and peltries, was sent to New Orleans. The first goods brought by steamboats came in 1828, by the steamer William Duncan.

In 1838, at the period of the Mormon war, as it was called, Lexington contained some 500 inhabitants. The Mormons first located themselves in Jackson county, about 35 miles west. They afterward effected a more permanent settlement in Caldwell county. At first they were enabled to live peaceably with their neighbors. In 1838, difficulties arising, the governor of Missouri gave orders for their expulsion. A conflict took place in Ray county, in which Patten, a Mormon leader and elder was killed, and a number wounded. During this period it was quite a time of alarm in this section, and the inhabitants of Lexington fled to Richmond for safety.

Wm. Downing is believed to have been the first innkeeper in the ancient part of Lexington. Wm. Todd was the first judge of the circuit court; the present judge, Russell Hicks,

who first came into the county about the year 1825, hired himself out to a farmer for about ten dollars a month. He afterward became a school teacher, and while studying law, he supported himself by this occupation.

The following inscriptions are copied from monuments in the graveyard in this place:

In memory of REV. FINIS EWING, born in Bedford county, Va., July 10, 1773, died in Lexington, Mo., July 4, 1841. He was a Minister of the Gospel for forty-five years; was one of the fathers and founders of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church.

In memory of Reverend JESSE GREENE, born Nov. 29, A.D. 1791, died April 18, A.D. 1847. A pure Christian, a wise Counsellor, a faithful Minister, a Pioneer of Methodism in Missouri, part in the Council and Itinerant labors of his Church, and fell at his post. "I heard a voice from heaven, saying write, Blessed are the dead who die in the Lord; Yea, saith the Spirit, their works do follow them." Rev. xiv, 13. The members of the Saint Louis Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church South have erected this monument over his remains, A.D. 1850.

L. A. GRISWOLD, Hebe of Prudence Constellation, No. 34, A.A.R., surrendered her crown on Earth to be crowned with immortal glory in Heaven. In memory of Lockie A. Griswold, wife of Sylvanus A. Griswold, completed her errand of Mercy here, and was permitted to behold the Light of the Seraphic world, which ever inspired her with fraternal excellence, at 10 o'clock, P.M., Sept. 27, 1856.



North-eastern view of Kansas City.

Showing the appearance of Kansas City, at the Landing, as seen from the opposite bank of the Missouri. The forest shown in the distance, beyond the point of the bluff on the right, is within the territorial limits of Kansas. The Ferry Landing and the old Jail or Calaboose appear on the left.

KANSAS CITY is situated near the mouth of Kansas River, at the western boundary line between the state of Missouri and Kansas, 282 miles westward of Jefferson City, 456 from St. Louis, and 109 southerly from St. Joseph, on the Missouri. It is the western terminus of the line of the Pacific Railroad. A bluff, about 120 feet above high water mark, extends along the river for about a mile within the city limits. The principal part of the town is situated immediately back of the bluff, through which roads are being cut to the levee in front. This city is the great depot for the Santa Fe trade, and it is

estimated that *one fourth* of all the shipments up the Missouri River, from its mouth to the Rocky Mountains, are received here. Kansas City was incorporated in 1853. Population about 8,000.

As far back as the days of Lewis and Clarke, or the first expeditions of the various trapping companies of the French and the old pioneers of the west, the site of Kansas City has been a prominent point for the business of the old trappers and traders, who have had many a business transaction around their camp fires under the bluffs of the "*Kaumsmouth*," as this spot was formerly called.

The principal portion of the land inclosed by the old city limits was entered by Gabriel Prudhomme, an old mountain trader. The selection, survey, and first sale of the lots was made in 1838. The survey was but a partial one, and owing to some disagreement, nothing was done by the stockholders except the erection of a few cabins. In 1840, the town was re-surveyed by J. C. McCoy, Esq., and the growth of the city may be dated as commencing from that year. Within eighteen months after the first sale of lots, there was a population of about 700. The proprietors of the town were J. C. McCoy, Wm. Gilliss, Robert Campbell, H. Jobe, W. B. Evans, Jacob Ragan, and Fry P. McGee.

The first house erected in Kansas City was a log cabin, which stood on the site of the building in which the Western Journal of Commerce is issued. This cabin was erected in 1839, by Thomas A. Smart, as a trading house. The second building was erected by Anthony Richiers, a native of Germany, who was educated for the Catholic ministry. Father Bernard Donnelly, a native of Ireland and a Catholic, is believed to have been the first clergyman who officiated in public worship; he preached in a log building, now used as a school house, near Broadway, about half a mile back from the steamboat landing. The first physician was Dr. Benoist Troost, of Holland, formerly a surgeon under Napoleon. The first postmaster was William Chick, who for a time kept the office in the top of his hat. "*One eyed Ellis*," as he was familiarly called, appears to have been the first lawyer, who, it is stated, employed his leisure time in "picking up stray horses." Wm. B. Evans kept the first tavern, at the corner of Main and Levee-streets. The first newspapers were the "*Kansas Ledger*," first issued in 1852, and the "*Western Journal of Commerce*," first issued in Aug., 1854, under the name of the "*Kansas City Enterprise*."

A great portion of the early trade of the city was with the Indians, mountain and Mackinaw traders, boatmen, etc. Ponies, pelts, furs, etc., were received in exchange for powder, lead, tobacco, coffee, etc. The first and principal warehouses in town were erected in 1847. Col. E. C. McCarty, in company with Mr. Russell, started the first train from Kansas City to New Mexico; old Mr. McDowell took the charge of it, and was the first man that ever crossed the American Desert in a wagon. The following is extracted from the Annals of the City of Kansas, published in 1858:

The New Mexico, or, as it is generally known, the Santa Fe trade, is said to have first begun at Boonville, or Old Franklin, as early as the year 1824. Mr. Monroe, Philip Thompson, the Subletts of St. Louis and Jackson counties, Nat. Serres, and others, were among the first men ever engaged in the trade. The idea of taking or sending goods to New Mexico, was first suggested to these gentlemen by the richness and thick settlements of this valley of the Rio Grande Del Norte. When returned to the states, they commenced making preparations to forward goods to this valley. How to get their merchandise there, without being at an almost ruinous expense, was the most important subject of consideration. Finally, having resolved to go—to make the experiment at all hazards, they started, taking out their freight as best they could, some in one horse wagons, some in carts, some on pack-mules, and, *on dit*, with packs on their backs. They were successful—a better trade was found than they anticipated—more goods were sent out, with better carriage facilities, and in a few years large fortunes were realized. In 1845, Messrs. Bent and St. Vrain landed the first cargo of goods at Kansas City, that was ever shipped from this point to New Mexico in wagons that went out in a train. This train consisted of eighteen wagons, with five yoke of cattle to the wagon, and about 5,000 lbs. of freight to each team. A great excitement was extant. Mexican commerce had given new life to border trade. Gradually the business with New Mexico became concentrated at points on the river. From 1832 to 1848, or 1850, our neighbor city, Independence, had the whole command of

this great trade. Her merchants amassed fortunes, and the business generated by this prosperous intercourse, built up Independence into one of the most flourishing and beautiful towns in the west.

During these years, from 1832 to 1843, some few mountain and Mexican goods were landed among the cottonwoods below our city. Messrs. Bent & St. Vrain are among the oldest freighters engaged in transporting goods over the Great Plains; in 1834, they landed a small shipment of mountain goods at Mr. Francois Chouteau's log warehouse, near the island just east of the city. In 1846 our citizens then had what they thought to be quite a large and respectable trade with New Mexico, and the next year, 1847, it is conceded that Kansas City fairly divided this great trade with the city of Independence; and since 1850, Kansas City has had the exclusive benefit of all the shipping, commission, storage, repairing and outfitting business of the mountains and New Mexico, save, perhaps, a few wagons that have been loaded and outfitted at Independence by her own merchants.



A Train crossing the Great Plains.

From the most reliable information we can obtain, it is estimated that there are at least three hundred merchants and freighters now engaged in the New Mexico and mountain commerce. Properly, in this connection, may be inserted a few remarks concerning our mountain traffic and importations.

Some of our leading merchants for years have had trading houses established in the mountains, where they constantly keep a large stock of goods to trade with the Indians, who pay for these goods with their annuity money, with buffalo robes, with furs, pelts, hides, and Indian ornamental fabrics.

This trade done in the mountains, creates large importations of the above mountain products to our city. In 1857, the following importations were made: Robes, furs, etc., \$267,253 52; Mexican wool, \$129,600; goat skins, \$25,000; dressed buckskins, \$62,500; dry hides, \$37,500; peltries, \$36,000. Like the transport of Mexican goods, these imports come to us as the cargoes of the great mountain trains or caravans.

Train is only another word for caravan. These caravans, then, consist of from forty to eighty large canvas covered wagons, with from fifty to sixty-five hundred pounds of freight to each wagon—also, six yoke of oxen or five span of mules for every wagon—two men as drivers for every team, besides supercargoes, wagon masters, etc., who generally ride on horseback. When under way, these wagons are about one hundred feet apart, and as each wagon and team occupies a space of about ninety or one hundred feet, a train of eighty wagons would stretch out over the prairie for a distance of a trifle over three miles. In 1857, 9,884 wagons left Kansas City for New Mexico. Now, if these wagons were all in one train, they would make a caravan 223 miles long, with 98,840 mules and oxen, and freighting an amount of merchandise equal to 59,304,000 lbs.

A recent visitor at Kansas City gives some valuable items:

Just below the mouth of the Kansas, and between it and the highlands on which Kansas

City is located, is an extent of level bottom land, embracing some fifty acres, and covered sparsely with trees. This is the camping ground of the immense caravans of Russell, Majors & Co. We found several acres covered with the enormous wagons that are used in the prairie trade. Here is also an immense stable for the horses, mules, etc., and a place of deposit for feed for the thousands of oxen. It was to me something of a sight to see such a number of *land ships*. They will carry from seven to ten thousand pounds, and are drawn by from three to six yokes of oxen. They are covered when loaded, so as to protect the goods from the rains. I examined them, and found them made many hundreds of miles to the east. I saw a large number which came from Michigan. They are strong, heavily ironed and massive wagons.

The commercial business of the town is mostly transacted on the levee. The solid blocks of warehouses receive the goods from the steamers, and from them they are loaded into the immense wagons and taken to their final destination. Here is the landing and the starting place for the vast trade to Santa Fe and New Mexico. One of the singular features in the streets is the large number of Mexicans, or as every body here calls them, "greasers," with their trains of mules, loading for their far distant homes. Kansas City has been the starting place for this trade for thirty years. Many of the citizens have become wealthy by it, and the evidences of prosperity and thrift around us are traceable to the effects of this Santa Fe trade. I do not see any cause that can disturb this in the future. Heavy loads of goods and merchandise of all kinds are brought from St. Louis and the east, on steamers, to this, the last and the nearest point to the Territory of New Mexico, and as this business must increase with the settlement of the country to the west and south-west, the permanence of the prosperity of this city seems to be fixed.

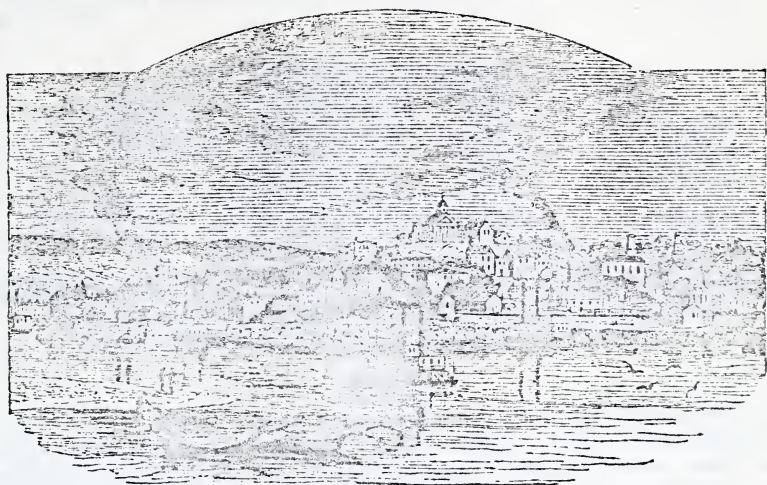
These "greasers" are a hard looking set of men. They are a sort of compromise between the Indian and negro, with now and then a touch of Spanish blood. They are generally short and small, quite dark, very black straight hair, generally hanging about their faces. Their national hat is a low crowned slouch looking concern. They wear girdles, with knives, etc., convenient for use. Altogether they look like an ignorant, sensual, treacherous, thieving and blood-thirsty set, which is very much the character they bear among the people of this city.

Kansas City, being in Missouri, has a few slaves, but they are fast disappearing. Some forty were shipped off in one gang this spring for the southern market. The original settlers were Southerners and slaveholders, but the northern element has been pouring in upon them till a large proportion of the business men are now from the free states. There is now no talk about slavery, all are engaged in a more sensible business—building up the city.

St. JOSEPH, the most populous and flourishing place in north-western Missouri, is situated on the E. bank of the Missouri, 335 miles N.W. from St. Louis, 391 from Jefferson City, and 206, by the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, from the Mississippi. The city is for the most part on broken and uneven ground, called the Black Snake Hills, and is surrounded by a rich and fertile country. There are 7 churches, 2 female seminaries, 2 daily and 3 weekly papers published here. There are several steam sawing and grist mills and other extensive manufacturing establishments. The Catholic Female Seminary of this place stands on a commanding elevation back from the city, and is seen from down the river at a great distance. The completion of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad makes this, at present, the most western point in the United States reached by the great chain of railroads, and has opened a new era in its prosperity. It is now the central point for all western travel. The Great Salt Lake mail, the Pike's Peak express, and the Pony express, taking dispatches to San Francisco in eight days, all start from this place. Population about 10,000.

The city of St. Joseph was founded by Joseph Robidoux, a native of St. Louis, and of French descent. Mr. Robidoux first visited this place in 1803, as an Indian trader, being in connection at that time with the American Fur Company. He was *forty days* in sailing up the Missouri from St. Louis, and camped out every night on shore with his boatmen, about a dozen in number. The Indians lived on the city grounds till they removed to the opposite bank

of the river, about 25 miles above. He erected his first trading house in 1831, about two miles below the city. In 1833, he built a second trading house on the spot now occupied by the City Hotel: and in 1838 pre-empted the site of the city.



South view of St. Joseph.

The view shows the appearance of the city, as it is approached from the south by the Missouri River. The Court House, in the central part, stands on an elevation of about 200 feet; the Railroad from Hannibal enters the city on the rich bottom lands on the right. The sand bank seen in the view on the left, is within the limits of Kansas.

The town was laid off in 1843. The first resident clergyman in the place was a Catholic, Rev. Thomas Scanlan, and the first public worship was held in the house of Mr. Julius C. Robidoux, the first postmaster in the place. Mr. R.'s first office was west of the Black Snake Creek, and he was the first regular merchant in St. Joseph. Rev. T. S. Reeve, the next minister, first preached in a log house on the corner of Third and Francis-streets. The first settlers were principally from Indiana, Kentucky and Ohio. Among the first settlers were Col. Samuel Hall, Capt. Wm. H. Hanson and William Ewing, from Kentucky; Capt. John Whitehead and James Cargill, from Virginia; Frederick W. Smith, from St. Louis; and Michael Rogers, from Ireland. Daniel G. Keedy, from Maryland, was the first physician. Jonathan M. Bassett, James B. Gardenhire, and Willard P. Hall, were among the first lawyers. Mrs. Stone, a widow lady, opened the first school. The first tavern was kept by David St. Clair, from Indiana, who came here in 1843. Jeremiah Lewis, from Kentucky, was the first ferryman.

Weston, a flourishing commercial town, on the Missouri River, about 4 miles above Fort Leavenworth, is the river port for Platte county, about 225 miles W.N.W., by the road, from Jefferson City, and upward of 500 by water from St. Louis. Its frontier position renders it a favorable position for emigrants starting for California and other points west. It was first settled in 1838. The great emigration westward of late years, has much increased the activity of trade at this point. Two newspapers are published here. Population about 3,500.

Independence, the county seat of Jackson, is important as one of the starting points in the trade to New Mexico, and other places westward. It is about five miles back from the Missouri River, and 165 miles W. by N. from Jefferson City. It was laid out in 1828, and is surrounded by a most beautiful and fertile country, abundantly supplied with pure water. Population about 3,500.



Hannibal.

HANNIBAL, Marion county, on the western bank of the Mississippi, is 15 miles below Quincy, Ill., and 153 above St. Louis. It is a flourishing town and the shipping port of a large quantity of hemp, tobacco, pork, etc., raised in the vicinity. Stone coal, and excellent limestone for building purposes, are abundant. Its importance, however, is principally derived from its being the eastern terminus of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, a line extending directly across the northern part of the state, and which, at this point, connects this great western railroad with the system of railroads eastward of the Mississippi. Hannibal was laid out in 1819, and incorporated in 1839. It is one of the most thriving towns on the Mississippi, has numerous manufacturing establishments, an increasing commerce, and about 8,000 people.

Col. John Shaw, in his personal narrative, relates some incidents that occurred in this section of Missouri in the war of 1812. He acted as a scout on this frontier. We here quote from him:

The Upper Mississippi Indians, of all tribes, commenced depredations on the frontiers of Missouri and Illinois, in 1811, and early in 1812. Several persons were killed in different quarters. About thirty miles above the mouth of Salt River, and fully a hundred above the mouth of the Missouri, was Gilbert's Lick, on the western bank of the Mississippi, a place of noted resort for animals and cattle to lick the brackish water; and where a man named Samuel Gilbert, from Virginia, had settled two or three years prior to the spring of 1812. In that region, and particularly below him, were a number of other settlers. About the latter part of May, 1812, a party of from twelve to eighteen Upper Mississippi Indians descended the river in canoes, and fell upon the scattered cabins of this upper settlement in the night, and killed a dozen or more people.

This massacre in the Gilbert's Lick settlement, caused great consternation along the Missouri frontier, and the people, as a matter of precaution, commenced fortifying. Some seven or eight forts or stockades were erected, to which a portion of the inhabitants resorted, while many others held themselves in readiness to flee there for safety, in case it might be thought necessary. I remember the names of

Stout's Fort, Wood's Fort, a small stockade at what is now Clarksville, Fort Howard, and a fort at Howell's settlement—the latter nearest to Col. Daniel Boone; but the people bordering immediately on the Missouri River, being less exposed to danger, did not so early resort to the erection of stockades.

About this time, probably a little after, while I was engaged with eighteen or twenty men in building a temporary stockade where Clarksville now stands, on the western bank of the Mississippi, a party of Indians came and killed the entire family of one O'Neil, about three miles above Clarksville, while O'Neil himself was employed with his neighbors in erecting the stockade. In company with O'Neil and others, I hastened to the scene of murder, and found all killed, scalped, and horribly mangled. One of the children, about a year and a half old, was found literally baked in a large pot metal bake kettle or Dutch oven, with a cover on; and as there were no marks of the knife or tomahawk on the body, the child must have been put in alive to suffer this horrible death; the oil or fat in the bottom of the kettle was nearly two inches deep.

I went to St. Louis, in company with Ira Cottle, to see Gov. Clark, and ascertain whether war had been actually declared. This must have been sometime in June, but the news of the declaration of war against Great Britain had not yet reached there. On our return, I was strongly urged by the people to act as a spy or scout on the frontier, as I was possessed of great bodily activity, and it was well known that I had seen much woods experience. I consented to act in this capacity on the frontiers of St. Charles county, never thinking or troubling myself about any pecuniary recompense, and was only anxious to render the distressed people a useful service. I immediately entered alone upon this duty, sometimes mounted, and sometimes on foot, and carefully watching the river above the settlements, to discover whether any Indians had landed, and sometimes to follow their trails, learn their destination, and report to the settlements.

Upon my advice, several of the weaker stockades were abandoned, for twenty or thirty miles around, and concentrated at a place near the mouth of Cuivre or Copper River, at or near the present village of Monroe; and there a large number of us, perhaps some sixty or seventy persons, were some two or three weeks employed in the erection of a fort. We named it in honor of the patriotic governor, Benjamin Howard, and between twenty and thirty families were soon safely lodged in *Fort Howard*. The fort was an oblong square, north and south, and embraced about half an acre, with block houses at all the corners except the south-east one.

As the war had now fairly commenced, an act of congress authorized the raising of six companies of Rangers; three to be raised on the Missouri side of the Mississippi, and the other three on the Illinois side. The Missouri companies were commanded by Daniel M. Boone, Nathan Boone, and David Mesick. The commission of Nathan Boone was dated in June, 1812, to serve a year, as were doubtless the others.

The Indians, supplied by their British employers with new rifles, seemed bent on exterminating the Americans—always, however, excepting the French and Spaniards, who, from their Indian intermarriages, were regarded as friends and connections. Their constant attacks and murders, led to offensive measures.

Of the famous *Sink Hole* battle, fought on the 24th of May, 1814, near Fort Howard, I shall be able to give a full account, as I was present and participated in it. Capt. Peter Craig commanded at Fort Howard; he resided with his father-in-law, Andrew Ramsey, at Cape Girardeau, and did not exceed thirty years of age. Drakeford Gray was first lieutenant. Wilson Able, the second, and Edward Spears, third lieutenant.

About noon, five of the men went out of the fort to Byrne's deserted house on the bluff, about a quarter of a mile below the fort, to bring in a grindstone. In consequence of back water from the Mississippi, they went in a canoe; and on their return were fired on by a party supposed to be fifty Indians, who were under shelter of some brush that grew along at the foot of the bluff, near Byrne's house, and about fifteen rods distant from the canoe at the time. Three of the whites were killed, and one mortally wounded; and as the back water, where the canoe was, was only about knee deep, the Indians ran out and tomahawked their victims.

The people in the fort ran out as quick as possible, and fired across the back water at the Indians, but as they were nearly a quarter of a mile off, it was of course without effect. Capt. Craig with a party of some twenty-five men hastened in pursuit of the Indians, and ran across a point of the back water, a few inches deep; while another party, of whom I was one, of about twenty-five, ran to the right of the water, with a view of intercepting the Indians, who seemed to be making toward the bluff or high plain west and north-west of the fort. The party with which I had started, and Capt. Craig's soon united.

Immediately on the bluff was the cultivated field and deserted residence of Benjamin Allen, the field about forty rods across, beyond which was pretty thick timber. Here the Indians made a stand, and here the fight commenced. Both parties treed, and as the firing waxed warm, the Indians slowly retired as the whites advanced. After this fighting had been going on perhaps some ten minutes, the whites were reinforced by Capt. David Musick, of Cape au Gris, with about twenty men. Capt. Musick had been on a scout toward the head of Cuivre River, and had returned, though unknown at Fort Howard, to the Crossing of Cuivre River, about a mile from the fort, and about a mile and a half from the scene of conflict; and had stopped with his men to graze their horses, when hearing the firing, they instantly remounted and dashed toward the place of battle, and dismounting in the edge of the timber on the bluff, and hitching their horses, they rushed through a part of the Indian line, and shortly after the enemy fled, a part bearing to the right of the Sink Hole toward Bob's Creek, but the most of them taking refuge in the Sink Hole, which was close by where the main fighting had taken place. About the time the Indians were retreating, Capt. Craig exposed himself about four feet beyond his tree, and was shot through the body, and fell dead; James Putney was killed before Capt. Craig, and perhaps one or two others. Before the Indians retired to the Sink Hole, the fighting had become animated, the loading was done quick, and shots rapidly exchanged, and when one of our party was killed or wounded, it was announced aloud.

This Sink Hole was about sixty feet in length, and about twelve to fifteen feet wide, and ten or twelve feet deep. Near the bottom on the south-east side, was a shelving rock, under which perhaps some fifty or sixty persons might have sheltered themselves. At the north-east end of the Sink Hole, the descent was quite gradual, the other end much more abrupt, and the south-east side was nearly perpendicular, and the other side about like the steep roof of a house. On the south-east side, the Indians, as a further protection in case the whites should rush up, dug under the shelving rock with their knives. On the sides and in the bottom of the Sink Hole were some bushes, which also served as something of a screen for the Indians.

Capt. Musick and his men took post on the north-east side of the Sink Hole, and the others occupied other positions surrounding the enemy. As the trees approached close to the Sink Hole, these served in part to protect our party. Finding we could not get a good opportunity to dislodge the enemy, as they were best protected, those of our men who had families at the fort, gradually went there, not knowing but a large body of Indians might seize the favorable occasion to attack the fort, while the men were mostly away, engaged in the exciting contest.

The Indians in the Sink Hole had a drum, made of a skin stretched over a section of hollow tree, on which they beat quite constantly; and some Indian would shake a rattle, called *she-shu-qui*, probably a dried bladder with pebbles within; and even, for a moment, would venture to thrust his head in view, with his hand elevated shaking his rattle, and calling out *peash! peash!* which was understood to be a sort of defiance, or as Black Hawk, who was one of the party, says in his account of that affair, a kind of bravado to come and fight them in the Sink Hole. When the Indians would creep up and shoot over the rim of the Sink Hole, they would instantly disappear, and while they sometimes fired effectual shots, they in turn became occasionally the victims of our rifles. From about one to four o'clock in the afternoon, the firing was inconstant, our men generally reserving their fire till an Indian would show his head, and all of us were studying how he could more effectually attack and dislodge the enemy.

At length Lieut. Spears suggested that a pair of cart wheels, axle and tongue.

which were seen at Allen's place, near at hand, be obtained, and a moving battery constructed. This idea was entertained favorably, and an hour or more consumed in its construction. Some oak floor puncheons, from seven to eight feet in length, were made fast to the axle in an upright position, and port-holes made through them. Finally, the battery was ready for trial, and was sufficiently large to protect some half a dozen or more men. It was moved forward slowly, and seemed to attract the particular attention of the Indians, who had evidently heard the knocking and pounding connected with its manufacture, and who now frequently popped up their heads to make momentary discoveries; and it was at length moved up to within less than ten paces of the brink of the Sink Hole, on the south-east side. The upright plank did not reach the ground within some eighteen inches, our men calculating to shoot beneath the lower end of the plank at the Indians; but the latter, from their position, had the decided advantage of this neglected aperture, for the Indians shooting beneath the battery at an upward angle, would get shots at the whites before the latter could see them. The Indians also watched the port-holes, and directed some of their shots to them. Lieut. Spears was shot dead, through the forehead, and his death was much lamented, as he had proved himself the most active and intrepid officer engaged. John Patterson was wounded in the thigh, and some others wounded behind the battery. Having failed in the object for which it was designed, the battery was abandoned after sundown.

Our hope all along had been, that the Indians would emerge from their covert, and attempt to retreat to where we supposed their canoes were left, some three or four miles distant, in which case we were firmly determined to rush upon them, and endeavor to cut them totally off. The men generally evinced the greatest bravery during the whole engagement. Night now coming on, and having heard the reports of half a dozen or so of guns in the direction of the fort, by a few Indians who rushed out from the woods skirting Bob's Creek, not more than forty rods from the north end of the fort. This movement on the part of the few Indians who had escaped when the others took refuge in the Sink Hole, was evidently designed to divert the attention of the whites, and alarm them for the safety of the fort, and thus effectually relieve the Indians in the Sink Hole. This was the result, for Capt. Musick and men retired to the fort, carrying the dead and wounded, and made every preparation to repel a night attack. As the Mississippi was quite high, with much back water over the low grounds, the approach of the enemy was thus facilitated, and it was feared a large Indian force was at hand. The people were always more apprehensive of danger at a time when the river was swollen, than when at its ordinary stage.

The men in the fort were mostly up all night, ready for resistance, if necessary. There was no physician at the fort, and much effort was made to set some broken bones. There was a well in the fort, and provisions and ammunition sufficient to sustain a pretty formidable attack. The women were greatly alarmed, pressing their infants to their bosoms, fearing they might not be permitted to behold another morning's light; but the night passed away without seeing or hearing an Indian. The next morning a party went to the Sink Hole, and found the Indians gone, who had carried off all their dead and wounded, except five dead bodies left on the north-west bank of the Sink Hole; and by the signs of blood within the Sink Hole, it was judged that well nigh thirty of the enemy must have been killed and wounded. Lieut. Drakeford Gray's report of the affair, made eight of our party killed, one missing, and five wounded—making a total of fourteen; I had thought the number was nearer twenty. Our dead were buried near the fort, when Capt. Musick and his men went over to Cape au Gris, where they belonged, and of which garrison Capt. Musick had the command. We that day sent out scouts, while I proceeded to St. Charles to procure medical and surgical assistance, and sent forward Drs. Hubbard and Wilson.

St. Charles, the capital of St. Charles county, is on the northern bank of the Missouri River, 18 miles from its mouth, and about 20 by land from St. Louis. The first settlement of St. Charles dates back to the year 1764,

when it was settled by the French, and for a long time was regarded as the rival of St. Louis. The opening of the North Missouri Railroad has added much to its prosperity. It is handsomely situated on the first elevation on the river from its mouth. The rocky bluffs in the vicinity present beautiful views of both the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers. Quarries of limestone, sandstone, and stone coal have been opened near the town. The village is upward of a mile long, and has several streets parallel with the river. It contains the usual county buildings, several steam mills, etc., a Catholic convent, a female academy, and St. Charles College, founded in 1837, under the patronage of the Methodists. Population about 3,000.

Boonville, a flourishing town, the county seat of Cooper county, is on the S. bank of Missouri River, 48 miles N.W. from Jefferson City. It has important commercial advantages, which have drawn to it the principal trade of S.W. Missouri, of a portion of Arkansas, and the Cherokee Nation. It has a healthy situation, and is surrounded by a rich farming region. Grapes are cultivated here to some extent. Iron, lead, stone coal, marble and limestone are abundant in the vicinity. The New Mexico or Santa Fe trade is said to have first begun at Boonville, or Old Franklin, as early as 1824. Population about 4,000.

Ironton, the county seat of Iron county, is on the line of the Iron Mountain Railroad, 87 miles from St. Louis. The county abounds in mineral wealth, iron, marble, copper, and lead, and the town, containing some few hundred inhabitants, is becoming quite a summer resort from its excellent medicinal springs.

Potosi is one of the oldest towns in the state, having been settled in 1763, by Messrs. Renault and Moses. It is near the line of the Iron Mountain Railroad, 54 miles from St. Louis. It is the county seat of Washington, and has been long noted as the seat of the richest of lead mines. The town has about 700 inhabitants.

The famous *Mine a Burton*, at this place, was the most important and principal discovery made in Missouri under Spanish authority. It took its name from M. Burton, a Frenchman, who, while hunting in this quarter, found the ore lying on the surface of the ground. This was about the year 1780. Hon. Thos. H. Benton gives this account of Mr. Burton from personal knowledge, and published it in the St. Louis Enquirer of October 16, 1818:

He is a Frenchman from the north of France. In the forepart of the last century, he served in the low countries under the orders of Marshal Saxe. He was at the siege of *Bergen-op zoom*, and assisted in the assault of that place when it was assailed by a division of Marshal Saxe's army, under the command of Count Lowendahl. He has also seen service upon the continent. He was at the building of Fort Chartres, on the American bottom, afterward went to Fort Du Quesne (now Pittsburg), and was present at Braddock's defeat. From the life of a soldier, Burton passed to that of a hunter, and in that character, about half a century ago, while pursuing a bear to the west of the Mississippi, he discovered the rich lead mines which have borne his name ever since. His present age can not be ascertained. He was certainly an *old soldier* at Fort Chartres, when some of the people of the present day were little children at that place. The most moderate computation will make him one hundred and six. He now lives in the family of Mr. Michaux, at the Little Rock ferry, three miles above Ste. Genevieve, and walks to that village almost every Sunday to attend Mass. He is what we call a square built man, of five feet eight inches high, full chest and forehead; his sense of seeing and hearing somewhat impaired, but free from disease, and apparently able to hold out against time for many years to come.

In 1797, Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, who afterward became identified with the history of Texas, explored the country about Mine a Burton, and obtained a grant of a league square from the Spanish government, in consideration of erecting a reverberating furnace and other works, for the purpose of prosecuting the mining business at these mines.

"Associated with Mr. Austin, was his son Stephen F. Austin, who, in 1798, commenced operations, erected a suitable furnace for smelting the "ashes of lead," and sunk the first regular shaft for raising ore. These improvements revived the mining business, and drew to the country many American families, who settled in the neighborhood of the mines. The next year a shot-tower was built on the pinnacle of the cliff near Herculeaneum, under the superintendence of Mr. Elias Bates, and patent shot were made. A manufactory of sheet lead was completed the same year, and the Spanish arsenals at New Orleans and Havana, received a considerable part of their supplies for the Spanish navy from these mines."

Hermann, capital of Gasconade county, is on the line of the Pacific Railroad, 81 miles from St. Louis. It was first settled in 1837, by the German Settlement Society, of Philadelphia. The place and vicinity are noted for the culture of the grape, being second only to Cincinnati. A good year's growth of the grape will yield over 100,000 gallons of wine, worth from \$1 25 to \$2 per gallon.

There are in the state a large number of towns of from 1,000 to 3,000 inhabitants, beside those described. These are among them: *Canton*, in Lewis county, 175 miles N.E. from Jefferson City. *Carondolet*, on the Iron Mountain Railroad, 6 miles from St. Louis. This is an old town, settled half a century since, and named from one of its early settlers, Baron De Carondolet. *Chillicothe*, the county seat of Livingston, is 129 miles west of Hannibal, on the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad. *Columbia*, the county seat of Boone, 33 miles N.N.W. from Jefferson City, and is the seat of the State University and of two colleges. *Fulton*, county seat of Callaway, is 24 miles N.E. from Jefferson City. Here is located Westminster College and the State Lunatic and Deaf and Dumb Asylums. *Glasgow* is in Howard county, on the left bank of the Missouri, 60 miles N.W. of Jefferson City. *La Grange* is on the Mississippi, in Lewis county, 104 N.N.E. of Jefferson City. *Louisiana* is on the left bank of the Mississippi, 82 miles N.E. of Jefferson City. *Palmyra*, the county seat of Marion, on the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, 14 miles from Hannibal, has two colleges and two academies, and is considered the most beautiful town of northern Missouri. *St. Genevieve*, the capital of St. Genevieve county, is situated on the W. bank of the Mississippi, 72 miles below St. Louis, and 117 S.E. from Jefferson City. St. Genevieve exports large quantities of copper, lead, limestone, marble, and white sand; the latter article is of superior quality, being used in the glass works of Boston and Pittsburg. It is noted as the oldest town in Missouri, having been settled by a few French families in 1751. *Tipton* is in Moniteau county, 38 miles from Jefferson City. *Washington* is in Franklin county, on the line of the Pacific Railroad, 54 miles from St. Louis. *Huntsville*, county seat of Randolph, is on the North Missouri Railroad, 160 miles N.W. from St. Louis: near it is Mount Pleasant College. *Mound City*, or Hudson, is at the junction of the North Missouri and Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroads, 168 miles from St. Louis. *Mexico*, the county seat of Audrian, is on the North Missouri Railroad, 50 miles N.E. from Jefferson City.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES, MISCELLANIES, ETC.

Gen. William Clark was born in Virginia in Aug., 1770, and in 1784 removed, with his father's family, to the Falls of the Ohio, now the site of Louisville, where his brother, the distinguished Gen. George Rogers Clark, had a short time previously established a fort. In 1793, he was appointed by Washington lieutenant of riflemen. "In 1803 he was tendered by Mr. Jefferson the appointment of captain of engineers, to assume joint command with Captain Merriwether Lewis, of the North-western Expedition to the Pacific Ocean. This was accepted, and the party left St. Louis in March, 1804, for the vast and then unexplored regions between the Mississippi River and the ocean, under the joint command of himself and Lewis, they being, by a special regulation to that effect, equal in rank. On this perilous expedition, he was the principal military director, while Lewis, assisted by himself, was the scientific manager. Gen. Clark then kept and wrote the Journal, which has since been published, and assisted Lewis in all his celestial observations, when they were together. On their return to St. Louis from the Pacific Ocean, in the fall of 1806, Capt. Lewis was appointed governor of the territory then designated as Upper Louisiana, and the place of lieutenant-colonel of infantry was offered to Gen. (then Capt.) Clark; but he preferred the place of Indian agent at St. Louis, having become, by his intercourse with the various tribes on the Missouri, well acquainted with the proper course to be pursued toward them; and he remained in this office until he was made brigadier general for the Territory of Upper Louisiana, under the laws of congress. During the late war with Great Britain he was applied to by the war department to revise the plan of the campaign then going on under Gen. Hull, and was offered the appointment of brigadier general in the United States army, and the command then held by Hull; these, however, he refused, being convinced that the operations of this officer were too far advanced to be successfully remedied. In 1813, President Madison appointed him, in place of Gov. Howard, resigned, governor of the territory and superintendent of Indian affairs, after he had twice refused to be nominated to the first office. He held both these offices until Missouri was admitted into the Union as a state in 1820. Upon her admission, he was nominated against his consent as a candidate for governor, but was not elected, being in Virginia at the time of election. He then remained in private life until 1822, when he was appointed by President Monroe, superintendent of Indian affairs. As commissioner and superintendent of Indian affairs for a long series of years, he made treaties with almost every tribe of Indians, and exhibited to all of them the feelings of a philanthropist, as well as a becoming zeal for the rights of the government of his country. He was applied to, to accept the office of United States senator from Missouri, but declined, believing that he could more efficiently serve his country, and the cause of humanity, in the Indian department than in the national halls of legislation. He was the youngest of six brothers, the four oldest of whom were distinguished officers in the Revolutionary war. One of them fell in the struggle; another was killed by the Indians upon the Wabash, and his brother, Gen. George Rogers Clark, is well known to the people of the west. The early history of Kentucky is identified with his, and as long as that noble and proud state maintains her lofty eminence, she will cherish his name. Gen. Clark was a resident of St. Louis for more than thirty years, and died there in September, 1838, aged 68 years."—*Blake's Biog. Dict.*

Gov. Benjamin Howard was born in Virginia. From 1807 to 1810, he was a representative in Congress from Kentucky, when he was appointed governor of Missouri Territory. In 1813, he resigned the latter office being appointed brigadier general in the U. S. service. This was the period of the war with Great Britain, and he was in command of the 8th military department, then embracing all the territory from the interior of Indiana to the Mexican frontier. He died after two days illness, at St. Louis, in Sept., 1814. He was a brave and patriotic man, and his loss was sincerely felt. Several forts in the west have been named from him.

Hon. Lewis F. Linn was born near Louisville, Ky., in 1795, and was educated to medicine, which he practiced after his removal to Missouri. From 1833 to 1843, he was a senator in congress from Missouri, and died Oct. 3d, in the last named year

at his residence in St. Genevieve. His congressional career was eminently distinguished for ability, and for his identification with the interests of the Mississippi Valley. His virtues were eulogized by many of the best men in the country.

Hon. Thomas Hart Benton "was born in Hillsborough, North Carolina, March 14, 1782, and educated at Chapel Hill College. He left that institution without receiving a degree, and forthwith commenced the study of law in William and Mary College, Virginia, under Mr. St. George Tucker. In 1810, he entered the United States army, but soon resigned his commission of lieutenant-colonel, and in 1811 was at Nashville, Tenn., where he commenced the practice of the law. He soon afterward emigrated to St. Louis, Mo., where he connected himself with the press as the editor of a newspaper, the *Missouri Argus*. In 1820, he was elected a member of the United States senate, serving as chairman of many important committees, and remained in that body till the session of 1851, at which time he failed of re-election. As Missouri was not admitted into the Union till August 10, 1821, more than a year of Mr. Benton's first term of service expired before he took his seat. He occupied himself during this interval before taking his seat in congress in acquiring a knowledge of the language and literature of Spain. Immediately after he appeared in the senate he took a prominent part in the deliberations of that body, and rapidly rose to eminence and distinction. Few public measures were discussed between the years 1821 and 1851 that he did not participate in largely, and the influence he wielded was always felt and confessed by the country. He was one of the chief props and supporters of the administrations of Presidents Jackson and Van Buren. The people of Missouri long clung to him as their apostle and leader; and it required persevering effort to defeat him. But he had served them during the entire period of thirty years without interruption, and others, who aspired to honors he enjoyed, became impatient for an opportunity to supplant him. His defeat was the consequence. Col. Benton was distinguished for his learning, iron will, practical mind, and strong memory. As a public speaker he was not interesting or calculated to produce an effect on the passions of an audience, but his speeches were read with avidity, always producing a decided influence. He was elected a representative in the thirty-third congress for the district of St. Louis, and on his retirement from public life devoted himself to the preparation of a valuable register of the debates in congress, upon which he labored until his death, which occurred in Washington on the 10th of April, 1858, of cancer in the stomach."—*Lauman's Dict. of Congress*.

EXPULSION OF THE MORMONS FROM MISSOURI.

[From Perkins' *Annals of the West*.]

From the time of Rigdon's conversion, in October, 1830, the progress of Mormonism was wonderfully rapid, he being a man of more than common capacity and cunning. Kirtland, Ohio, became the chief city for the time being, while large numbers went to Missouri in consequence of revelations to that effect. In July, 1833, the number of Mormons in Jackson county, Missouri, was over 1,200. Their increase having produced some anxiety among the neighboring settlers, a meeting was held in the month just named, from whence emanated resolutions forbidding all Mormons thenceforth to settle in that county, and intimating that all who did not soon remove of their own will would be forced to do so. Among the resolutions was one requiring the Mormon newspaper to be stopped, but as this was not at once complied with the office of the paper was destroyed. Another large meeting of the citizens being held, the Mormons became alarmed and contracted to remove. Before this contract, however, could be complied with, violent proceedings were again resorted to; houses were destroyed, men whipped, and at length some of both parties were killed. The result was a removal of the Mormons across the Missouri into Clay county.

These outrages being communicated to the Prophet at Kirtland, he took steps to bring about a great gathering of his disciples, with which, marshaled as an army, in May, 1834, he started for Missouri, which in due time he reached, but

with no other result than the transfer of a certain portion of his followers as permanent settlers to a region already too full of them. At first the citizens of Clay county were friendly to the persecuted; but ere long trouble grew up, and the wanderers were once more forced to seek a new home, in order to prevent outrages. This home they found in Caldwell county, where, by permission of the neighbors and state legislature, they organized a county government, the country having been previously unsettled. Soon after this removal, numbers of Mormons flocking in, settlements were also formed in Davis and Carroll:—the three towns of the new sect being Far West in Caldwell; Adam-on-di-ah-mond, called Diahmond or Diahman, in Davis; and Dewit, in Carroll. Thus far the Mormon writers and their enemies pretty well agree in their narratives of the Missouri troubles; but thenceforth all is contradiction and uncertainty. These contradictions we can not reconcile, and we have not room to give both relations; referring our readers, therefore, to Hunt and Greene, we will, in a few words, state our own impressions of the causes of the quarrel and the catastrophe.

The Mormons, or Latter-day Saints, held two views which they were fond of dwelling upon, and which were calculated to alarm and excite the people of the frontier. One was, that the west was to be their inheritance, and that the unconverted dwellers upon the lands about them were to be destroyed, and the saints to succeed to their property. The destruction spoken of was to be, as Smith taught, by the hand of God; but those who were threatened naturally enough concluded that the Mormons might think themselves instruments in His hand to work the change they foretold and desired. They believed also, with or without reason, that the saints, anticipating, like many other heirs, the income of their inheritance, helped themselves to what they needed of food and clothing; or, as the world called it, were arrant thieves.

The other offensive view was, the descent of the Indians from the Hebrews, taught by the Book of Mormon, and their ultimate restoration to their share in the inheritance of the faithful: from this view, the neighbors were easily led to infer a union of the saints and savages to desolate the frontier. Looking with suspicion upon the new sect, and believing them to be already rogues and thieves, the inhabitants of Carroll and Davis counties were of course opposed to their possession of the chief political influence, such as they already possessed in Caldwell, and from the fear that they would acquire more, arose the first open quarrel. This took place in August, 1838, at an election in Davis county, where their right of suffrage was disputed. The affray which ensued being exaggerated, and some severe cuts and bruises being converted into mortal wounds by the voice of rumor, a number of the Mormons of Caldwell county went to Diahmond, and after learning the facts, by force or persuasion induced a magistrate of Davis, known to be a leading opponent of theirs, to sign a promise not to molest them any more by word or deed. For this Joe Smith and Lyman Wight were arrested and held to trial. By this time the prejudices and fears of both parties were fully aroused; each anticipated violence from the other, and to prevent it each proceeded to violence. The Mormons of Caldwell, legally organized, turned out to preserve the peace; and the Anti-Mormons of Davis, Carroll and Livingston, acting upon the sacred principle of self-defense, armed and embodied themselves for the same commendable purpose. Unhappily, in this case, as in many similar ones, the preservation of peace was ill confided to men moved by mingled fear and hatred; and instead of it, the opposing forces produced plunderings, burnings, and bloodshed, which did not terminate until Governor Boggs, on the 27th of October, authorized Gen. Clark, with the full military power of the state, to exterminate or drive from Missouri, if he thought necessary, the unhappy followers of Joe Smith. Against the army, 3,500 strong, thus brought to annihilate them, and which was evidently not a mob, the 1,400 Mormons made no resistance; 300 died, and the remainder surrendered. The leaders were examined and held to trial, bail being refused; while the mass of the unhappy people were stripped of their property to pay the expenses of the war, and driven, men, women, and children, in mid winter, from the state, naked and starving. Multitudes of them were forced to encamp without tents, and with scarce any clothes or food, on the bank of the Mississippi, which was too full of ice for them to cross. The people of Illinois, however, received the fugitives when

they reached the eastern shore, with open arms, and the saints entered upon a new and yet more surprising series of adventures than those they had already passed through. The Mormons found their way from Missouri into the neighboring state through the course of the year 1839, and missionaries were sent abroad to paint their sufferings, and ask relief for those who were persecuted because of their religious views; although their *religious* views appear to have had little or nothing to do with the opposition experienced by them in Missouri.

THE IRON MINES OF MISSOURI

No country on the globe, of the same extent, equals Missouri in the quantity of iron. "The metalliferous region of Missouri covers an area of at least 20,000



PILOT KNOB.

One of the Iron Mountains, and rising to the height of five hundred and eighty-one feet.

square miles, or about 12,800,000 acres, and the same formation extends southward into Arkansas and westward into the territories. In this great region is a uniformity of mineral character as unusual as the great extent of the deposits. The whole country is composed of lower magnesian limestone, and bears lead throughout its entire extent, and in numerous localities, iron mines of great value exist. The ore is massive, generally found on or near the surface, and of remarkable purity. Among the most remarkable of these iron formations is the celebrated *Iron Mountain*, in St. Francis county, near Potosi, and about 80 miles south from St. Louis by the Iron Mountain Railroad, and 30 west of the Mississippi

River. On account of the difficulty of transportation, and the prevailing impression that the ore from the Iron Mountain could not be smelted, it remained unproductive till the formation of the Iron Mountain Company, in 1845. It now furnishes the chief material for the St. Louis rolling-mill, and is the principal support of the iron manufactures of Missouri.

The mountain is the south-western termination of a ridge of porphyritic rocks. It is of a conical shape, flattened at the top, and slopes toward the west. It is made up exclusively of specular oxide of iron, the most abundant and valuable ore in the state, in its purest form, containing no perceptible quantity of other mineral substances except a little less than one per cent. of silica, which, according to Dr. Ditton, who made an analysis of the ore four or five years ago, rather improves than injures its quality. The quantity of the ore is inexhaustible, and, for most purposes, its quality requires no improvement.

The area of the Iron Mountain covers an extent of some five hundred acres. It rises to the height of two hundred and sixty feet above the general level of the surrounding country. Its whole top is a solid mass of iron, and one can see nothing but iron lumps as far as the eye can reach. The ore of this mountain is known as the specular oxide, and usually yields some sixty-eight or seventy per cent. of pure iron, and so free from injurious substances as to present no obstacle to working it directly into blooms. The metal is so excellent that much of it is now used by the manufacturers on the Ohio River, for mixing with the ore found there. There are in operation at the mountain three blast furnaces, producing from seven thousand to seven thousand five hundred tons of metal annually. Besides this immense deposit of ore above the surface, a shaft sunk at the base of the mountain gives fifteen feet of clay and ore, thirty feet of white sandstone, thirty-three feet of blue porphyry, and fifty-three feet of pure iron ore. This bed of mineral would be immensely valuable if there was none above the surface.

"About six miles south and a little east of the Iron Mountain are deposits of ore no less rich, and scarcely less extensive. These are chiefly in *Pilot Knob* and *Shepherd Mountain*. The *Pilot Knob* ore is different from all other ore of the neighborhood, both in appearance and in composition. It is of finer grain, and more compact, and breaks with a gray, steel-like fracture. It contains from ten to twenty per cent. of silica, which renders it more readily fusible, and better fitted for some purposes. The Knob is a very striking feature in the landscape. Rising almost perpendicularly five hundred and eighty-one feet on a base of three hundred and sixty acres, and almost wholly isolated, it has long served as a land-mark to the pioneers of Missouri. Hence its name. A very large portion of the mountain is pure iron. It is somewhat difficult to estimate the quantity of the ore, on account of its being interstratified with slate. The rocks about the base of the mountain are dark gray, silicious and slaty. At a height of three hundred feet they show more traces of iron. At a height of four hundred and forty-one feet there is a stratum of pure ore, from nineteen to twenty-four feet thick. Beneath and above this are beds of ore mixed with the silicious rocks. It is estimated that the amount of ore above the surface is not less than 13,872,773 tons, and probably much more. Its igneous origin is not certain, but probable; and hence it is probable that it extends downward to an indefinite extent, according to the well founded theory of geologists.

Shepherd Mountain, which is a little more than a mile south-west of *Pilot Knob*, rises to a height of 660 feet on a base of 800 acres. It is penetrated with veins or dykes of ore, running in different directions, but mostly vertical, and of indefinite extent.

From the mine, which is worked at about 500 feet from the top of *Pilot Knob*, the ore is carried in cars on a railway running down the side of the mountain, on a fearfully steep inclined plane. Upon this plane we climbed laboriously to the mine and then ascended to the flagstaff, firmly fastened among the rocks, on the topmost peak, which are so well worn by the feet of strangers that they present the appearance of pure wrought iron, which is hardly remarkable in view of the fact that horse-shoes and knives have been repeatedly made from the crude ore, merely by hammering.

When we state, on the authority of Prof. Swallow, that there is enough ore, of the very best quality, within a few miles of *Pilot Knob* and *Iron Mountain*, above the surface of the valleys, not reckoning the vast deposits that lie beneath, to furnish one million tons per annum of manufactured iron for two hundred years, some estimate may be formed of the vast advantages that must accrue to Missouri from the possession of so rich a store of that indispensable metal, which, greater in its power even than gold, has always stood pre-eminent in its influence on the prosperity of nations, seeming, as it were, to communicate to those who own and manufacture it some of its own hardy and sterling qualities."

The mines of *Elba*, *Sweden*, and *Norway*, all together do not equal these peaks. The substantial wealth of *England* and *Belgium* is drawn from their mines, but neither of them possess the mineral wealth, the iron, lead, coal, tin and copper of this single state.

Gen. James Wilkinson was born in Maryland about the year 1757, was educated to medicine, entered the army of the Revolution, and was breveted brigadier general. After the war he settled in Kentucky in commercial business. Again entering the army, he had command of the United States forces in the Mississippi valley. In the war of 1812, he served on the northern frontier. He died in 1825, aged 68. He published "*Memoirs of My Own Times*," 3 vols. 8vo., 1816.

Major Amos Stoddard, the first American governor of Upper Louisiana, was born in *Woodbury*, *Conn.*, and was a soldier of the Revolution. He was subsequently clerk of the supreme court in *Boston*, also practiced law at *Hallowell*, *Maine*. In 1799, he entered the army as captain of artillery. About the year 1804, he was appointed first military commandant and civil governor of Upper Louisiana, his headquarters being *St. Louis*. He died of lockjaw in 1813, from a wound received at the siege of *Fort Meigs*. He was a man of talent, and was the author of *Sketches of Louisiana*, a valuable work.

KANSAS.

KANSAS, prior to 1854, was included within the limits of the "Indian Territory," lying west of Missouri, and the adjoining states. It was thus



ARMS OF KANSAS.

MOTTO.—*Ad Astra per Aspera.*—To Prosperity
through Adversity.

called from the circumstance of its being the territory on which several tribes of Indians, mainly from east of the Mississippi, were located under the direction of the general government. The principal tribes thus placed within the present limits of Kansas, were the Delawares, who were estimated at upward of 800 in number; the Kickapoos, at about 900, the Shawnees, at about 1,300: the Kansas, one of the original tribes of this region, were located on the Kansas River, farther westward, and were supposed to number about 2,000.

The first white man who traversed the soil of Kansas seems to have been M. Dutisne, a French officer, sent in 1719, by Bienville, the governor of Louisiana, to explore the territory west of the Mississippi. He passed up Osage River, a southern tributary of the Missouri, and visited several Indian villages within the present limits of Kansas.

In 1804, Lewis and Clark, on their celebrated Rocky Mountain expedition, passed up the Missouri River, on the eastern boundary of Kansas. The oldest fort on this river is Fort Leavenworth, which was established in 1827. This, with the missionary establishments among the Indians, were the first places occupied by the whites.

In 1832, the small pox reduced the Pawnee Indians, in Kansas, one half. Thus, enfeebled, they entered into a treaty with the United States, disposing of their Kansas possessions, and agreed to reside wholly north of the Nebraska River, and west of Missouri. Here, under the patronage of government, they erected dwellings, shops, etc., and commenced agricultural improvements. Their young men, however, formed war parties, and committed depredations upon the tribes around them. They were severely

chastised by the Comanches and Osages; and the Utahs, from their mountain fastnesses, avenged themselves of former cruelties. To crown the misery of the Pawnees, the Blackfeet and Sioux Indians, in the north and west, ravaged their fields, burned their houses, and drove away their horses and cattle. Disheartened, they migrated south, and settled near the Ottobes and Omahas, where the remnant now exist.

"The whole Indian population of Kansas," says Mr. Greene, in his History of the Kansas region, 1856, "is probably 25,000. The immigrant tribes are the Kickapoos, Wyandots, Sacs and Foxes, Munsees, Weas and Plankeshaws, Peorias and Kaskaskias, Ottawas, Pottowatomies, Chippewas, Delawares, and Shawnees; embracing in all a population of about 5,000, and including within their reservations, prior to the treaties of 1853 and '54, almost ten millions of acres. A million of acres were ceded by the Delawares, Weas and Kickapoos, in May, 1853, to be sold at auction. The Shawnee Reserve embraces thirty miles west of the Missouri line and fifteen south of Kansas River. The Wyandots have thirty sections in the angle formed by the confluence of the Kansas and Missouri. The Delawares retain a tract ten miles wide and forty long, extending east from the mouth of Grasshopper Creek. The Pottowatomies own thirty miles square, cut through the middle by Kansas River. The Kickapoos have a small reserve at the head of the Grasshopper. North of the river and below Pottawatomie, the Kansas still hold a tract twenty-two miles long and one wide."

In 1820, on the admission of Missouri into the Union, the congress of the United States passed the "Missouri Compromise" act, prohibiting slavery in all territory of the United States north of $36^{\circ} 30'$. Kansas being north of this line was included within the limits of the prohibition. In 1854, on the organization of the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, congress, after an exciting discussion, passed the "Kansas and Nebraska bill," which in effect rendered nugatory the Compromise Act of 1820. This at once opened up a contest between slave-holders and free-soil men for possession. The richest part of Missouri, that most densely filled with a slave population, lay adjacent to the soil of Kansas. Were Kansas to become free territory the people feared that there would be no security in western Missouri for slavery. They determined, therefore, to introduce and fasten the institution in Kansas.

The passage of the Kansas Nebraska bill had agitated the whole country, and widely spread the information of the fine climate and rich soil of Kansas: this excited the desire of multitudes of the citizens of the free states to emigrate thither, introduce their institutions, open farms on its virgin soil, and found new homes for themselves and their children in the beautiful prairie land. The conflict which ensued between the pro-slavery and the free-soil parties was inevitable.

Soon as the tidings of the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill reached western Missouri, some thousands of the people crossed over the borders and selected farms, and for a while they had the control of the political movements in the territory, ere the van of the free state emigrants could reach it.

Many of the latter came hither in bodies, neighbors joining together for that purpose, and in Massachusetts, an Emigrant Aid Society was created, for (it was alleged) pecuniary gain, by the means of organized capital in forming centers for settlers.* To counteract this, "Blue Lodges" were

*The Emigrant Aid Society was originally formed in Massachusetts, May 4, 1854, just before the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill. In the succeeding February a new char-

established in western Missouri to assist pro-slavery emigration. Soon all emigrants came armed, for events showed that only by a struggle and bloodshed the question of ascendancy would be settled.

A. H. Reeder, the first governor of the territory, and appointed by President Pierce, arrived at Fort Leavenworth, Oct. 6, 1854, and soon after visited Lawrence, where he was met by the citizens, and was welcomed in an address by Gen. Pomeroy. The governor stated in his reply that, as far as possible, he should maintain law and order, and preserve the freedom of speech. The first election of a delegate to congress took place Nov. 29, 1854. The territory was divided into nineteen districts. Gov. Reeder, who resided at Fort Leavenworth, appointed election judges, and gave instructions to have the vote properly taken. It appears, however, that an organized body of Missourians, in some instances, took forcible possession of the polls, and elected Gen. Whitfield as a delegate. In the election for the territorial legislature, on March 30, 1855, large organized bodies from Missouri controlled the polls, appointing their own judges, where those previously appointed would not conform to their wishes. In consequence of this, every district (with one exception) returned pro-slavery men to the prospective legislature.

The legislature met on the 2d of July, at Pawnee, according to the proclamation of the governor, and was organized by the election of D. S. Stringfellow as speaker. In the course of the first week they passed an act removing the seat of government from Pawnee to the Shawnee Manual Labor School, to take effect from and after its passage: they also passed an act adopting the laws generally of Missouri as the laws of Kansas. On the 6th of July, the governor vetoed the act removing the seat of government. It was, however, passed over his veto by a two thirds vote, and the two legislative houses met at the Shawnee Mission on the 16th of July. On July 25, in a joint session, they elected the various county officers for a term of *six years*. Various other extraordinary and unusual acts were passed.* A resolution was carried declaring the incompetency of the governor, and a memorial was dispatched to Washington praying for his removal.

Gov. Reeder and Judge Elmer, of the supreme court, having been removed by the general government, Wilson Shannon, an ex-governor of Ohio, was appointed governor, and Judge Moore, of Alabama, succeeded Judge Elmer. On Sept. 5, 1855, a free state convention met at Big Springs, which resolved to repudiate all the acts passed by the legislature held at the Shawnee Mission. On the

ter was obtained, in which the objects of the society were declared to be "For the purposes of directing emigration westward, and aiding in providing accommodations for the emigrants after arriving at their places of destination." The total capital was about \$100,000. The plan was to give fixed centers for emigrants, with mills, schools, and churches, and thus to benefit the stockholders by the opportunities which the application of associated capital would give in the rapid rise of the real estate around these centers. Emigrants under it provided their own expenses; but by going in companies had the advantages of traveling at reduced rates. The great bulk of emigration was not, however, from distant New England, but from the hardy population of the north-west, familiar with pioneer life and inured to its hardships.

* "Among their labors were an act to fix the seat of government at Leecompton; acts making it a capital offense to assist slaves in escaping either into the territory or out of it, and felony, punishable with imprisonment at hard labor from two to five years, to conceal or aid escaping slaves, to circulate anti-slavery publications, or to deny the right to hold slaves in the territory; an act giving the right to vote to all persons who had paid a poll tax of one dollar, whether residents or not; an act requiring all voters, officers, and attorneys, to take an oath to support the fugitive slave law and the acts of this legislature; and an act giving the selection of jurors to the sheriff. They also adopted the Missouri laws in a heap."

19th of September, a convention assembled at Topeka, in which it was resolved to take measures to form a state constitution. On the 9th of October, the free state men held their election, allowing no nonresident to vote: 2,400 votes were cast, nearly all of which were for Gov. Reeder as delegate to congress. They also elected delegates to assemble at Topeka, on the fourth Tuesday of the same month, to form a state constitution. This convention met, and chose Col. James Lane its president: a constitution was formed in which slavery was prohibited. Immediately after the adjournment of this convention, the pro-slavery party called a "Law and Order convention," over which Gov. Shannon and Judges Lecompte and Elmer presided, in which the Topeka convention was denounced as a treasonable assemblage.

In Nov., one Coleman, in a quarrel about a land claim, killed a Mr. Dow, a free state settler, at Hickory Point, about 12 miles from Lawrence. Coleman then proceeded to Lecompton, to Gov. Shannon, and swore a complaint against Branson, at whose house Dow had lodged, that Branson had threatened his (Coleman's) life. Branson was thereupon arrested by Sheriff Jones, but was rescued by his neighbors, and took refuge in Lawrence. These transactions caused great excitement. The people of Lawrence armed as an attack was threatened. Gov. Shannon issued his proclamation, stating an open rebellion had commenced, and calling for assistance to carry out the laws: this was circulated through the border counties of Missouri, volunteer companies were raised, and nearly 1,800 men crossed over from Missouri, having with them seven pieces of cannon, obtained from the U. S. arsenal near Liberty, Mo. This formidable array encamped at Wakerusa, over against Lawrence, which was now threatened with destruction. Gov. Shannon, Chief Justice Lecompte and David R. Atchison accompanied the troops. For more than a week the invading force continued encamped, and a deadly conflict seemed imminent. Fortunately for the peace of the country, a direct conflict was avoided by an amicable arrangement. The invading army retired from Lawrence, Dec. 2, 1855.

In Dec., 1855, the Topeka constitution was adopted by a vote of the people, and state officers were appointed. On Jan. 4, 1856, in a message, Gov. Shannon indorsed the pro-slavery legislature and code, and represented the formation of the Topeka constitution as equivalent to an act of rebellion. This was followed by a proclamation, on Feb. 4th, directed against the free state men, and on the strength of it, indictments for treason were found against Charles Robinson, Geo. W. Brown, ex-Gov. Reeder, Gen. Lane, Geo. W. Deitzler, and others, connected with the formation of the free state government. Robinson, Brown, Deitzler, and many others, were arrested and imprisoned at Lecompton during the entire summer, guarded by the United States' dragoons.

In March, 1856, the house of representatives, at Washington, having under consideration the conflicting claims of Gov. Reeder and Gov. Whitfield to represent Kansas in congress, appointed a commission to investigate the fact. This committee consisted of Howard, of Michigan, Sherman, of Ohio, and Oliver, of Missouri, who, being directed to proceed to Kansas, arrived at Lawrence on the 17th of April. While in Kansas this "congressional committee of investigation" collected a large mass of testimony which went to prove that frauds had been perpetrated by the pro-slavery party at the ballot box, also that many outrages had been committed, in which the free state settlers were principally the sufferers.

Early in April, 1856, two or three hundred pro-slavery men, from Georgia and the Carolinas, arrived in the territory, under the command of Maj. Buford, of Georgia. On the 24th of April, Sheriff Jones entered Lawrence and arrested several free state men. On the 8th of May, Gov. Robinson, while descending the Missouri on his way east, was seized and detained at Lexington, Mo., and afterward sent back to Kansas on the charge of treason. Gov. Reeder and Gen. Lane, being indicted on the same charge, succeeded in making their escape out of the territory. On the 21st of May, Sheriff Jones, with a posse of some four or five hundred men, proceeded to Lawrence, ostensibly for the purpose of executing the process of the courts. Several pieces of artillery and about 200 of Sharp's rifles were taken, two printing presses, with a large quantity of material, were destroyed, and the Free State Hotel and Dr. Robinson's mansion were burnt as nuisances. On the 26th, a skirmish occurred at Ossawatimie, in which three free state and five pro-slavery men were killed. The free state men now began to make a concerted and armed resistance to the pro-slavery bands which were spread over the country. Parties of free state emigrants coming up the Missouri, were turned back, and forbid entering the territory, so that their only ingress into Kansas was overland through Iowa. For months civil war prevailed, and the settlers were distressed by robberies, murders, house burnings, the destruction of crops, and other atrocities.

The free state legislature, according to the time fixed, met at Topeka, July 4, 1856. As they were about organizing for business, Col. Sumner (who was accompanied by a body of U. S. dragoons), went into the hall, and claiming to act under the authority of the president of the United States, dispersed the assemblage. On the 5th of Aug., a body of men from Lawrence marched against a post, near Ossawatimie, occupied by a company of marauders, said to be Georgians. After a conflict of three hours, the post, a large block-house, was carried with a loss of one or two killed, and several wounded on both sides. Other conflicts took place in other places, attended with loss of life. Gov. Shannon was removed early in August, and acting Gov. Woodson, on the 25th of that month, issued a proclamation declaring the territory in a state of rebellion.

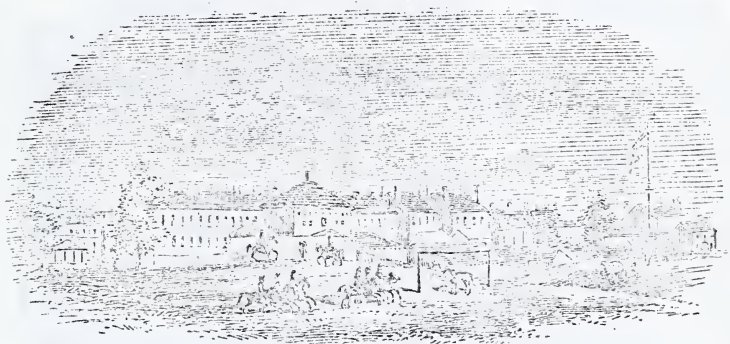
Gov. Geary, the successor of Gov. Shannon, arrived in the territory about the 1st of Sept., and by proclamation ordered all the volunteer militia to be discharged, and all bodies of men acting without the authority of government, instantly to disband or quit the territory. After this the outrages and skirmishes rapidly diminished, and order was gradually restored.

The next season, the pro-slavery party, at a convention held at Leecompton, formed a state constitution, familiarly known as the *Leecompton Constitution*, and in the session of 1857-8, applied to congress for admission into the Union. Great opposition was made to it on the ground that the convention which formed it was fraudulently elected, and did not represent the will of the people, as it was favorable to slavery. After a long and memorable struggle, the instrument was referred to the people of Kansas, on the 4th of Aug., 1858. They rejected it by a vote of more than six to one—11,300 against to 1,783 votes in favor.

To this period the party lines in Kansas had been divided between the pro-slavery and the free state men. Soon after, these distinctions gave place to the Democratic and Republican parties. The next territorial legislature met in Jan., 1859, and the Republicans, having the majority, took measures by which a convention met at Wyandot, in the succeeding July, and formed

a state constitution, known as the *Wyandot Constitution*, which prohibited slavery. This constitution, on reference to the people, was adopted by a large majority. The lower house of congress, in the succeeding session, 1859-60, passed the bill, but the senate failed to act upon it, so it was lost. Kansas, therefore, remained in a territorial condition until January 30th, 1861, when it was admitted as a free state of the Union. The severe contest in regard to the institutions of Kansas was thus closed, only, however, to give place to a more terrible struggle, involving the whole nation. •

Kansas is bounded N. by Nebraska, E. by Missouri, S. by the Indian Territory, and W. by Colorado Territory. It extends between the parallels of 37° 30' and 40° N. Lat., and 94° 30' and 102° W. Long.



South view of Fort Leavenworth.

The view is taken from a point near the residence of the Chaplain. The block-house, which appears near the central part, is the oldest building standing in Kansas. It is pierced for musketry and cannon; the lower part is constructed of brick, the upper of logs, etc. The barrack buildings appear beyond; the Quartermaster's building is seen on the right.

The eastern part of Kansas is one of the most beautiful and fertile sections of country found in the United States. It consists, for the most part, of rolling prairies, having a deep, rich and fertile soil. The smooth and graceful hills, covered with dense vegetation, extend westward from the Missouri about 200 miles, having, in many places, the appearance of a vast sea of grass and flowers. The timber is principally in the vicinity of the rivers and streams, but a remarkable provision exists in the abundance of limestone found on the crest of all the elevations, just cropping out from the surface, hardly interfering with vegetation. This is admirably adapted for buildings and fences. Numerous coal beds are said to abound.

The Kansas or Kaw is the only stream of importance passing into the interior. The climate is healthy, the air being pure and dry. The winters are usually mild and open, with little snow. Kansas possesses very superior advantages for the raising of cattle. Almost all kinds of grain and fruits can be produced in great abundance. In March, 1855, the population was estimated, in round numbers, at 8,000; a year later it was estimated at 60,000; in 1860, it was 107,110.

FORT LEAVENWORTH, formerly the most important military post in the United States, is situated on the west side of the Missouri River, 31 miles

above the mouth of Kansas River, and 4 miles below Weston, Mo. This is the oldest fort on the Missouri, having been established in 1827: it received its name from Col. Leavenworth, an officer of distinction in the Niagara campaign. It is the great frontier depot for other military posts on the Santa Fe, Utah and Oregon routes, and the general rendezvous for troops proceeding to the western forts. The fort stands on an elevation of about 150 feet, and about 150 yards back from the steamboat landing. Several thousand acres of fine land in the vicinity are reserved for the use of the force at this point.



South-eastern view of Leavenworth City.

The view shows the appearance of the city as seen from the Missouri side of the river. The Market House and Theater building, surmounted by a flag, is shown on the left; and the Planter's House, the Steamboat and Steam Ferry Landings on the right.

On some occasions, as many as 1,000 laborers and artisans have been employed here in the government service at one time. The buildings consist of the barracks, magazines, the officers' houses, hospital, the quartermaster's building, and others. General Persifer F. Smith, the commander of the Utah expedition, died here on Sunday evening, May 16, 1858: his remains were taken east for burial. The government has a small chapel here, in which the Rev. Leander Ker, of Scotch descent, officiates as chaplain of the post. Mr. Ker likewise has the charge of a school of 30 or 40 children, the books, stationery, etc., being furnished by the government.

During the difficulties with Utah, in 1858, the transportation establishment of the army, under Russell & Waddell, the contractors, between the fort and the city, was the great feature of this vicinity, with its acres of wagons, herds of oxen, and regiments of drivers and other employees. This firm had millions of dollars invested in the business, employed six thousand teamsters, and worked *forty-five thousand oxen*.

LEAVENWORTH CITY, on the W. bank of Missouri River, the largest town and commercial metropolis of Kansas, is 3 miles below the fort, 37 N.E. from Lawrence, 70 S. from St. Joseph, Mo., and by the Missouri River 495

from St. Louis. Several daily and weekly newspapers are published here. Leavenworth city was founded in the autumn of 1854. Previous to this it was covered with a heavy growth of forest trees, the hunting ground for the officers of Fort Leavenworth, traversed by wolves, wildcats, wild turkeys, and deer. The first building was a frame shanty, erected in 1834, near which is an elm tree, under which the first number of the "Kansas Weekly Herald" was printed, in September, 1854. The first printer was General Lucius Eastin, of Kentucky. The first public house was the Leavenworth Hotel: the Planters' House was erected in 1856. Rev. Mr. Martin, O. S. Presbyterian, was among the first clergymen who preached in the place. Population about 15,000.

Wyandot is situated on the west bank of the Missouri, at the mouth of Kansas River, 37 miles below Leavenworth City, and 35 miles east of Lawrence. It is a new, beautiful and flourishing place, regularly laid out on ground rising gracefully from the water. Being built on the curve of the river, it is in full view of Kansas City, in Missouri, from which by water it is about a mile distant, and two miles by land; a steam ferry-boat plies between the two places. It is a busy town, and the outlet between southern Kansas and the Missouri River. At Wyandot commences the great Pacific Railroad. Population about 3,000.

Atchison, 46 miles above Leavenworth, on the Missouri River, is, next to Leavenworth, the largest town in Kansas, with a population estimated in 1865 at 8,000. Here daily start the overland stages for the Rocky Mountains. A railroad has been commenced, leading hence to connect with the South Pacific on the Republican Fork. When the grass starts up in the spring, the place is so thronged with the teams of overland emigrants one can scarcely cross the streets.

LAWRENCE, the county seat of Douglas county, is beautifully situated on the right bank of Kansas River, 45 miles W. from Kansas City, Mo., and 12 from Leecompton. The Eldridge House, 100 by 117 feet, is at this time by far the finest building in Kansas. Mount Oread is about half a mile S.W. of the Eldridge House. On this elevation it is in contemplation to build a college: the view from this location, embracing a space of from 50 to 70 miles in circumference, is exceedingly beautiful. Population about 5,000.

Lawrence received its name from Amos A. Lawrence, of Boston, Mass. In July, 1854, a company of 24 persons, principally from New England, came up the Missouri River to Kansas City, and from thence traveling by land, located themselves on the site of Lawrence, the spot having been selected by Chas. H. Branscomb, agent of the Massachusetts Aid Society. In September following, a second company of about 70 persons arrived. These two companies of pioneers held their first regular meeting Sept. 16, 1854, being called to order by Dr. Robinson. A. H. Mallory was chosen president, C. S. Pratt, secretary, and a committee of six to manage the affairs of the company, viz: J. Doy, J. F. Morgan, A. H. Mallory, J. N. Nace, G. L. Osborne and L. P. Lincoln. On Sept. 20, 1854, at a meeting of the "Lawrence Association," the following persons were chosen officers, viz: Dr. Chas. Robinson, president; Ferd. Fuller, vice president; Caleb S. Pratt, secretary; Levi Gates, jr., treasurer; Erastus D. Ladd, register; A. D. Searl, surveyor; John Mailley, Owen Taylor, John Bruce, jr., arbitrators; and Joel Grover, marshal.

Very soon after their arrival, the settlers were visited by a body of 150 Missouri borderers, ordered to strike their tents, and leave the territory to return no more. But this the people declining, the borderers left, and commenced the organization of "Blue Lodges," to foster pro-slavery emigration.



Northern view of Lawrence.

The view shows the appearance of Lawrence as seen from the opposite bank of Kansas River, having the eye slightly elevated. The Eldridge Hotel, on Massachusetts-street, is seen on the right. A log cabin, the first structure in Lawrence, is shown near the bank. The passage down the bank to the ferry, with the Whitney and Waverly Houses above, appear on the left.

Lawrence and Leavenworth were the first towns located in Kansas. Some time in the summer of 1854, Clark Stearns, of Missouri, squatted at this place and erected a log cabin, the first structure built here (still standing at the head of Massachusetts-street). It is stated that the Lawrence Company intended to have passed on to the Big Blue River, at Manhattan, some 60 miles above. Having arrived near this spot, some of the company rode their horses to the summit of Mount Oread, to find a suitable place to encamp during the night. Discovering Stearns' cabin, and being charmed with the appearance of the country, they determined to stop here, and accordingly encamped on the present site of the Eldridge Hotel.

The first meeting for public worship was held in a building constructed of long poles united at the top, intertwined with sticks, twigs, hay, etc., and then sodded over. This was on the first Sunday after the arrival of the company. Erastus D. Ladd, of New England origin, read a sermon on the occasion. The first school was kept by Edward P. Fitch, of Massachusetts. The first framed building was erected by Rev. S. Y. Lum, of New Jersey, the first regular preacher and agent of the Home Missionary Society. The Free State Hotel (afterward burnt), the first in the place, was built by the

Emigrant Aid Society, and was kept by Col. Eldridge. The first newspaper, "*The Herald of Freedom*," was issued in the fall of 1854, by G. W. Brown, from Pennsylvania. The first merchants' shops were opened by C. L. Pratt and Norman Allen, on Massachusetts-street. The first ferryman was Wm. N. Baldwin.

Lawrence will ever be a memorable spot as having been the head-quarters of the free state settlers during the "Kansas War;" it was particularly obnoxious to the contrary party, on account of the free soil sentiments of the inhabitants. On the 11th of May, 1856, Marshal Donaldson, in order to arrest several obnoxious free state men, summoned a posse, took the Georgia emigrants, under Maj. Buford, under pay, together with several hundred others. Having proceeded to Lawrence, he announced his determination to make arrests. The citizens, in a public meeting, denied the charge of having resisted the authorities of the territory. On the morning of the 21st of May, a body of about 500 men came from the camp, near Lecompton, and halted on Mount Oread, in Lawrence, near the residence of Gov. Robinson. They were headed by the U. S. Marshal Donaldson, who claimed the assembled force as his posse, they having responded to his late proclamation. They formed in line facing the north-east, and planted two cannon in range with the Free State Hotel and other large buildings in Massachusetts-street. About noon, the marshal, with a posse of ten men, arrested G. W. Deitzler, Col. Jenkins, Judge Smith, and some others, taking them as prisoners to their camp. About 3 o'clock, P. M., Sheriff Jones, accompanied by about twenty-five armed horsemen, rode up to the door of the Free State Hotel and stopped. Gen. Pomeroy, and several others, went out to meet him. The sheriff demanded that all the arms be given up to him, and said he would give them one hour for this purpose. Pomeroy then, after some consultation with the committee, delivered up several pieces of artillery. The U. S. Marshal Donaldson having dismissed his posse, they moved their two field pieces into Massachusetts-street, and were immediately summoned to the spot to act as the sheriff's posse. The sheriff then gave information that the Free State Hotel had been presented by the grand jury of Douglas county as a nuisance, together with the two newspapers, the *Herald of Freedom* and *Free State*, and that Judge Lecompte wished them removed. A lone star flag having for a motto "*Southern Rights*," was thereupon raised over these offices, the presses destroyed, and the type thrown into the river. An attempt was next made to batter down the hotel by cannon shot, but not succeeding, it was set on fire and reduced to ashes. After this, several private houses were robbed, and money, clothing, and other articles were pillaged. During the night following, the house of Gov. Robinson, on Mount Oread, having a valuable library, was set on fire and consumed. The total damage to property in Lawrence was estimated at \$150,000.

During the summer, until late in the fall, civil war raged in the territory, many murders and other atrocities being committed. On the 14th of Sept., an army of 2,500 Missourians, arranged in three regiments, with five pieces of artillery, appeared before Lawrence, with threats of destruction to the town. The people threw up breastworks, and made hasty preparations for defense, but they must have been overwhelmed in case of attack. This was averted by the interference of Gov. Geary, with a body of U. S. dragoons, who threw himself between the conflicting parties, and prevailed upon the Missourians to retire to their homes.

LECOMPTON is a village of about 600 inhabitants: it has a Methodist church and several land offices, and is some twelve miles westward of Lawrence, and 35 from Leavenworth. The capital was located here in August, 1855, by the territorial legislature. A fine capitol building has been commenced, the foundations laid and part of the first story reared, but owing to the failure of obtaining the necessary appropriations, the building has been suspended.



Northern view at Lecompton.

The long building seen in the central part of the view is the Masonic Hall, in the upper story of which the noted Lecompton Constitution was formed. The lower story, and most of the other buildings represented, are used for land offices.

The site of this place was taken up by Thomas Simmons and his son William, in the fall of 1854; in the spring of 1855, it was purchased of them by a company, consisting of Judge Lecompte, of Maryland, Daniel Woodson, secretary, from Virginia, C. B. Donaldson, from Illinois, John A. Halderman, from Kentucky, private secretary of Gov. Reeder, Samuel J. Jones, sheriff, from Virginia, and Dr. Aristedes Rodrigue, from Pennsylvania. The town was then laid out, on the grounds rising from the river, covered with forest trees, many of which still remain.

The first structure erected here was Simmons' log cabin, still standing about one fourth of a mile back from the river; the next was a log cabin built on the river bank, under the direction of Sheriff Jones. The first framed house here was put up by Samuel J. Cramer, from Virginia. Rev. Mr. Prichard, of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, delivered the first sermon in this place, over a grocery store, while, it is said, a company were playing cards below. Dr. Rodrigue was the first physician. The first house of entertainment was kept on the bank of the river by a Mrs. Sipes. Part of the building now fitted up as a hotel, by Maj. Barnes, was used as a place of confinement for the free state prisoners arrested after the battle of Hickory Point, in the fall of 1856, by the United States dragoons. One hundred and one of these were confined here nearly three months, guarded by two companies of militia, under Col. Titus, being occasionally relieved by the U.

S. troops. Of these prisoners, 33 were from states east of Ohio; 6 from Missouri; and 77 from the free states of the north-west. Twenty of them were convicted, in Judge Lecompte's court, of manslaughter. They were subsequently removed to Tecumseh, and after a tedious confinement in prison liberated.

The first legislative assembly, in accordance with the proclamation of Gov. Reeder, met at Pawnee, near Fort Riley, but having to camp out, they adjourned to the Shawnee Mission. This act was vetoed by the governor, but the assembly passed it over his head. The next legislative assembly met in the Masonic Hall, in Leecompton, and it was in this building that the celebrated Lecompton Constitution, the subject of so much political discussion, was formed. The council sat in the building later occupied by Gov. Denver, on the opposite side of the street.

TOPEKA, for a time the free state capital of Kansas, is on the S. side of Kansas River, 25 miles westward from Lawrence, and 55 in a direct line from Leavenworth City. It contains two or three churches, the Constitutional Hall, etc., and about 1,000 inhabitants. A bridge was built, at an expense of about \$15,000, over the Kansas River, at this place, and finished in May, 1858. It was, however, soon after swept down by the great freshet of that year.

"Topeka" is an Indian word, signifying "*wild potato*," or "potato bottom," the place where they grow. This root, which is about as large as a man's thumb, is found along the bottom lands of Kansas River, and is used by the Indians as food. The foundation of Topeka was laid Dec. 4, 1854, by a number of settlers, who came here from Lawrence. The company consisted of C. K. Halliday, from Pennsylvania; M. C. Dickey, New Hampshire; Enoch Chase, Jacob B. Chase and Geo. Davis, from Massachusetts; J. G. Cleveland, from Iowa; Frye W. Giles, from Illinois; D. H. Horne and S. A. Clark. Having formed themselves into the "Topeka Association," C. K. Halliday was chosen president.

The first building raised here was a log cabin now standing near the ferry or bridge, 13 by 11 feet inside. The earth inside was covered by prairie grass or hay, when twenty-four persons lodged within, lying on the ground: while the twenty-fifth man stretched himself on a load of hay on the outside. The first building was burnt on the first evening of its occupancy. The company, during the winter of 1854-5, slept in their clothes, boots, etc. Their food was principally mush, on which they were kept in a healthy condition. Rev. S. Y. Lum, a congregationalist minister, preached the first sermon in Topeka, in the log cabin. The second place of public worship was in a small building constructed of clapboards, now standing on the premises of Col. Halliday. The first school was under Miss Harlan, now Mrs. J. P. Cummings, in a "shake" building, a few yards from Col. Halliday's house. The first regular house of entertainment was kept by Mrs. A. W. Moore, near the first log cabin. In Nov., 1855, W. W. Ross, of Ohio, established the first newspaper here, called the "Kansas Tribune," some 30 numbers of which had been previously issued in Lawrence.

On the 4th of July, 1856, the state assembly, under the Topeka constitution, consisting of representatives from all parts of the territory, met at the Constitutional Hall, in Topeka. Free state men, to the number of some 1,000 or 1,500, assembled here at the time, and were encamped about the

town. Some 600 or 800 were considered as regular militia volunteers, and were under the command of Col. C. K. Halliday. At this period, such was the state of the times, that most of the settlers went armed, even about their daily avocations. The U. S. force at this time, under the command of Colonel Sumner, consisted of some seven hundred dragoons and flying artillery, from Forts Leavenworth and Riley. In addition to this, it is stated that about 2,000 armed men, ostensibly gathered in various places to celebrate the 4th of July, were ready to march and "wipe out" Topeka, should there be any resistance made to the United States authorities.



Northern view of the Bridge, etc., at Topeka.

The view was taken a short time after the completion of the bridge, the first ever built over Kansas River. Part of the village of Topeka is seen in the distance on the right. The log cabin near the bridge is the first building erected in the place.

The state assembly met at 12 o'clock at noon, at the Constitutional Hall, the lower story of which was occupied by the house of representatives, the upper by the senate. Col. Sumner, with a body of about 200 dragoons and a company of artillery, now came into the place, and having planted two cannon at the head of the avenue, with lighted matches in hand, rode up to the hall, arranging his troops in a semi-circular line in front. At this time a company of free state volunteers were assembled, and were in the act of receiving a silk banner from a collection of young ladies, one of whom was then standing at the door of the Constitutional Hall, making the presentation address. The dragoons having rather overridden the volunteers, the assemblage was broken up.* Col. Sumner, dismounting, entering the representative hall, accompanied by Marshal Donaldson. At this time, the speaker being temporarily absent, S. F. Tappan, the clerk, was calling the roll. Col. Sumner advanced, took possession of the speaker's chair, and stated that he was obliged to perform the most painful duty of his life, that he had rather spend the whole of it in opposing the enemies of his country, than to perform that single act, which was, "by authority vested in him by the presi-

* Col. S. afterward made an apology to the company assembled on the occasion.

dent of the United States, now to command the body here assembled, calling itself the legislature of Kansas, to disperse." Judge Schuyler, addressing the colonel, asked, "Are we to understand that we are to be driven out at the point of the bayonet?" "I give you to understand," replied Sumner, "that all the force under my command will be put under requisition to carry out my orders; *I again command you to disperse.*" The house then dispersed. As Sumner was passing out, he was informed that the senate was in session in the chamber above. Just as he entered, the chair was taken by Thomas G. Thornton, president *pro tem.*, with the view of calling the senate to order. Col. S. then informed them of what he had done below, and that he wished to know their intentions. Mr. Thornton replied that the senate not being organized, he could give no answer, but if he would wait until they were so, one would be given. Col. S. rejoined, that his object was to prevent an organization. After some desultory conversation, the assemblage dispersed.

Ossawatimie is on the Osage, at its confluence with Pottawatomie Creek, 42 miles S.E. from Lawrence, and 28 from the Missouri line. The most severe conflict in the Kansas War took place here, on the 31st of August, 1856. About 300 pro-slavery men, under Capt. Reid, of Missouri, marched with a field piece upon the town, their line extending, in battle order, from river to river, across the prairie westward of the place. The inhabitants mustered about 40 men in defense, under Capt. John Brown, who took to the timber, and fighting Indian fashion, from the shelter of the trees, kept their enemy on the open plain for some time at bay, until their ammunition failing, most of them effected their retreat across the river. Their women and children escaped to the woods on the south. Their village, consisting of about 30 houses, was plundered and then laid in ashes, being the second time it had been thus destroyed by the pro-slavery forces. "Old Brown," the free soil leader, sometimes called "Ossawatimie Brown," lost one of his sons on this occasion. Becoming fanatical on the subject of slavery, he after this engaged in running off slaves from Missouri to Canada, and finally became a historical character by a conviction for treason, and a termination of his career on the gallows, at Harpers Ferry.

Grasshopper Falls is about 30 miles N.W. of Lawrence. It has several mills and the best water power north of Kansas River. *Fort Riley* is a military post at the junction of the two main branches of the Kansas, which, in high water, is navigable for small steamers to this point. *Manhattan* and *Warbonsee* are two thriving towns in that vicinity. The latter was colonized from New Haven, Conn.; and by the identical party to whom *Sharp's rifles* were subscribed at a meeting in a church. One of them was a deacon in the church, and among the donors were clergymen, professors of science, lady principals of female seminaries, and others of quiet callings and anti-pugnacious tendencies.

St. Marys, on Kansas River, 51 miles below Fort Riley, is an important and flourishing Catholic missionary establishment among the Pottawatomies, and the mission buildings, the trading houses, with the Indian improvements, give it quite the appearance of a town.

The *Catholic Osage Mission*, on the Neosho River, 45 miles from Fort Scott, is one of the largest missions and schools in Kansas. It was com-

menced in 1847; Rev. John Schoemaker was the first superior of this mission. Sermons are preached in Osage and English. Attached to this mission is a manual labor school for boys, under the direction of the fathers. There are ten missionary stations at as many Indian villages, within sixty miles, attended mostly from this mission. In 1853, the Quapaw school, by the direction of the U. S. government, was transferred to this mission.

The *Shawnee Mission*, under the direction of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, is about 8 miles from the mouth of Kansas River, and 3 from Westport, Mo. It has very superior buildings, and a manual labor school. The *Friends' Shawnee Labor School* is 3 miles W. from the Methodist mission. It has been in operation more than fifty years, including the period before their arrival. The *Baptist Shawnee Mission* is 2 miles N.W. from the Methodist School. The *Kickapoo Mission* is on Missouri River, 4 miles above Fort Leavenworth; the *Iowa and Sac Mission School* is just south of the northern line of Kansas, about 26 miles N.W. of St. Joseph. It is said to have been established as early as 1837.

Council Grove is a noted stopping place on the Santa Fe road, S. from Fort Riley, containing several trading houses and shops, and a missionary establishment and school.

Council City, a tract nine miles square, recently laid out on a branch of the Osage, is in a S.W. course from Lawrence.

MISCELLANIES.

The following narrative of a visit to the Kansas Indians, is from the work



KANSAS VILLAGE.

Engraved from a view in De Smet's Sketches.

of P. J. De Smet, a Catholic missionary, who was sent by the bishop of St. Louis, in 1840, on an exploring expedition to the Rocky Mountains, to ascertain the spiritual condition of the Indians, etc.:

We started from Westport on the 10th of May, and after having passed by the lands of the Shawnees and Delawares, where we saw nothing remarkable but the college of the Methodists, built, it is easy to divine for what, where the soil is richest: we arrived after five days' march on the banks of the Kansas River, where we found those of our companions, who had traveled by water, with a part of our baggage. Two of the relatives of the grand chief had come twenty miles from that place to meet us, one of whom helped our horses to pass the river in safety, by swimming before them, and the other announced our arrival to the principal men of the tribe who waited for us on the opposite bank. Our baggage, wagons and men crossed in a pirogue, which, at a distance, looked like one of those gondolas that glide through the

streets of Venice. As soon as the Kansas understood that we were going to encamp on the banks of the Soldier's River, which is only six miles from the village, they galloped rapidly away from our caravan, disappearing in a cloud of dust, so that we had scarcely pitched our tents when the great chief presented himself, with six of his bravest warriors, to bid us welcome. After having made me sit down on a mat spread on the ground, he, with much solemnity, took from his pocket a portfolio containing the honorable titles that gave him a right to our friendship, and placed them in my hands. I read them, and having, with the tact of a man accustomed to the etiquette of savage life, furnished him with the means of smoking the calumet, he made us accept for our guard the two braves who had come to meet us. Both were armed like warriors, one carrying a lance and a buckler, and the other a bow and arrows, with a naked sword and a collar made of the claws of four bears which he had killed with his own hand. These two braves remained faithful at their post during the three days and three nights that we had to wait the coming up of the stragglers of the caravan. A small present, which we made them at our departure, secured us their friendship.

On the 19th we continued our journey to the number of seventy souls, fifty of whom were capable of managing the rifle—a force more than sufficient to undertake with prudence the long march we had to make. Whilst the rest of our company inclined to the west, Father Point, a young Englishman and myself turned to the left, to visit the nearest village of our hosts. At the first sight of their wigwams, we were struck at the resemblance they bore to the large stacks of wheat which cover our fields in harvest time. There were of these in all no more than about twenty, grouped together without order, but each covering a space of about one hundred and twenty feet in circumference, and sufficient to shelter from thirty to forty persons. The entire village appeared to us to consist of from seven to eight hundred souls—an approximation which is justified by the fact that the total population of the tribe is confined to two villages, together numbering 1,900 inhabitants. These cabins, however humble they may appear, are solidly built, and convenient. From the top of the wall, which is about six feet in height, rise inclined poles, which terminate round an opening above, serving at once for chimney and window. The door of the edifice consists of an undressed hide on the most sheltered side, the hearth occupies the center and is in the midst of four upright posts destined to support the *rotunda*; the beds are ranged around the wall and the space between the beds and the hearth is occupied by the members of the family, some standing, others sitting or lying on skins, or yellow colored mats. It would seem that this last named article is regarded as an extra piece of finery, for the lodge assigned to us had one of them.

As for dress, manners, religion, modes of making war, etc., the Kansas are like the savages of their neighborhood, with whom they have preserved peaceful and friendly relations from time immemorial. In stature, they are generally tall and well made. Their physiognomy is manly, their language is guttural, and remarkable for the length and strong accentuation of the final syllables. Their style of singing is monotonous, whence it may be inferred that the enchanting music heard on the rivers of Paragway, never cheers the voyager on the otherwise beautiful streams of the country of the Kansas.

The Kansas, like all the Indian tribes, never speak upon the subject of religion without becoming solemnity. The more they are observed, the more evident does it become that the religious sentiment is deeply implanted in their souls, and is, of all others, that which is most frequently expressed by their words and actions. Thus, for instance, they never take the calumet without first rendering some homage to the Great Spirit. In the midst of their most infuriate passions they address him certain prayers, and even in assassinating a defenseless child, or a woman, they invoke the Master of Life. To be enabled to take many a scalp from their enemies, or to rob them of many horses, becomes the object of their most fervid prayers, to which they sometimes add fasts, macerations and sacrifices. What did they not do last spring, to render the heavens propitious? And for what? To obtain the power, in the absence of their warriors, to massacre all the women and children of the Pawnees! And in effect they carried off the scalps of ninety victims, and made prisoners of all whom they did not think proper to kill. In their

eyes, revenge, far from being a horrible vice, is the first of virtues, the distinctive mark of great souls, and a complete vindication of the most atrocious cruelty. It would be time lost to attempt to persuade them that there can be neither merit, nor glory, in the murder of a disarmed and helpless foe. There is but one exception to this barbarous code; it is when an enemy voluntarily seeks a refuge in one of their villages. As long as he remains in it, his asylum is inviolable—his life is more safe than it would be in his own wigwam. But woe to him if he attempt to fly—scarcely has he taken a single step, before he restores to his hosts all the imaginary rights which the spirit of vengeance had given them to his life! However cruel they may be to their foes, the Kansas are no strangers to the tenderest sentiments of piety, friendship and compassion. They are often inconsolable for the death of their relations, and leave nothing undone to give proof of their sorrow. Then only do they suffer their hair to grow—long hair being a sign of long mourning. The principal chief apologized for the length of his hair, informing us, of what we could have divined from the sadness of his countenance, that he had lost his son. I wish I could represent to you the respect, astonishment and compassion, expressed on the countenances of three others, when they visited our little chapel for the first time. When we showed them an "Eccc Homo" and a statue of our Lady of the seven Dolours, and the interpreter explained to them that that head crowned with thorns, and that countenance defiled with insults, were the true and real image of a God who had died for the love of us, and that the heart they saw pierced with seven swords, was the heart of his mother, we beheld an affecting illustration of the beautiful thought of Tertullian, that the soul of man is naturally Christian! On such occasions, it is surely not difficult, after a short instruction on true faith and the love of God, to excite feelings of pity for their fellow creatures in the most ferocious bosoms.

THE SHAWNEES IN KANSAS.

Henry Harvey, late superintendent of the Friends Mission among the Shawnees, in Kansas, gives, in his work on the history of that tribe, an account of their condition in Kansas, at the time of the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill. Originally the Shawnees resided in the Ohio country: the tribe was one of the most powerful there, and has numbered among its chiefs, Tecumseh, Cornstalk, and other men of extraordinary talent and nobility of soul. Mr. Harvey says:

"The Shawnees, in the year 1854, numbered about nine hundred souls, including the white men who have intermarried into the nation, and are thereby adopted as Indians. This number is perhaps not more than twenty.

This tribe owns about one million six hundred thousand acres of land, or, about 1,700 acres each. Many of them have good dwelling-houses, well provided with useful and respectable furniture, which is kept in good order by the females, and they live in the same manner as the whites do, and live well too. They have smoke-houses, stables, corn-cribs, and other outbuildings. They have a good supply of horses, cattle, hogs, and some sheep. They have many farm wagons and work oxen—some carriages and buggies, and are generally well supplied with farming implements, and know how to use them. They raise abundance of corn and oats, and some wheat. Their houses are generally very neat; built of hewn logs, with shingled roofs, stone chimneys, and the inside work very well finished off, and mostly done by themselves, as there are a number of very good mechanics among the younger class. Their fencing is very good, and, taken altogether, their settlements make a very respectable appearance, and would lose no credit by a comparison with those of their white neighbors in the state adjoining them, leaving out now and then, a farm where slaves do the labor, and thus carry on farming on a large scale.

The Shawnees have a large and commodious meeting-house, where they hold a religious meeting on the first day of each week. They have also a graveyard attached to the meeting-house lot. They hold religious meetings often at their own houses during the week, generally at night. They hold their camp-meetings and their other large meetings, in their meeting-house, as well as their public councils, and also their temperance meetings; for they, in imitation of their white brethren,

and as a means of arresting the worst evil which ever overtook the Indians, organized a society on this subject, and have their own lecturers, in which they are assisted by some of the missionaries. The younger class of them are most interested in this work, which is doing much good among them. Many of them have united themselves to religious societies, and appear to be very zealous observers of the forms and ceremonies of religion, and notwithstanding many of them, like too many of their white brethren, appear to have the form of godliness but not the power, yet it is apparent, that there are those among them who are endeavoring to walk in the just man's path, which, to one who has been acquainted with them for a number of years, even when in their wild and savage state, affords great satisfaction.

As regards the settlements of the Shawnees in their present situation, they are all located on about thirty miles of the east end of their tract; their settlements of course, reaching a little short of one third of the distance back from the Missouri state line.

In passing along the California and Santa Fe roads, which run on the divide between the streams of the Blue and Osage Rivers, and the Kansas River—in casting the eye on either side, a handsome view is presented on both hands, of good dwellings, handsome farms, bordering on the forest, and fine herds of cattle and horses grazing in the rich prairies, as we pass, and beautiful fields of grain sown, planted and cultivated by the Indians themselves; and should the weary traveler see proper to call, and spend a night with these people, and manifest that interest for them, which he will be very sure to do, in viewing them in their present condition, and comparing it with what it once was, he will be well cared for. The Shawnees generally sow a large amount of grain, and often spare a large surplus after supplying their own wants.

There are now in the Shawnee nation four Missions, one under the care of the Methodist Church South, one under the care of the Northern Methodist Church, one under the care of the Baptist Church, and the other under the care of the Society of Friends. They are all conducted on the manual labor system; about one hundred and forty children are generally in attendance at those schools. At the first named mission there are large and commodious buildings of brick, and other out-buildings, and five or six hundred acres under cultivation; at the other Methodist Mission, a farm of about one hundred acres is under cultivation, and comfortable log buildings are erected. At the Baptist Mission are good comfortable buildings, and, I suppose, near one hundred acres adjoining to, and at some distance from, the farm, where the school is kept; and at the Friends' Mission are a large frame house and barn, and other out-buildings, and about two hundred acres under cultivation."

CALIFORNIA.

CALIFORNIA is said, by some writers, to signify in English, *hot furnace*, and to be derived from two Spanish words, *caliente fornalla*, or *horno*: but



ARMS OF CALIFORNIA.

MOTTO—*Eureka*—I have found it.

this is doubtful. If true, however, it is properly applied, as the sun pours down into the valleys through a dry atmosphere with great power. Under the Mexicans, California was in two divisions. Lower California was, as now, the peninsula. Upper or New California comprised all of Mexico north of that point and the Gila River, and east of the Rocky Mountains, containing nearly 400,000 square miles. The greater part of New Mexico, and of Utah, and all of the state of California, comprised the original Upper California.

California was discovered in 1548, by Cabrillo, a Spanish navigator. In 1758, Sir Francis Drake visited its northern coast, and named the coun-

try New Albion. The original settlements in California were mission establishments, founded by Catholic priests for the conversion of the natives. In 1769, the mission of San Diego was founded by Padre Junipero Serra.

The mission establishments were made of adobe, or sun burnt bricks, and contained commodious habitations for the priests, store-houses, offices, mechanic shops, granaries, horse and cattle pens, and apartments for the instruction of Indian youth. Around and attached to each, were, varying in different missions, from a few hundred to several thousand Indians, who generally resided in conical-shaped huts in the vicinity, their place of dwelling being generally called the *rancheria*. Attached to each mission were a few soldiers, for protection against hostilities from the Indians.

The missions extended their possessions from one extreme of the territory to that of the other, and bounded the limits of one mission by that of the next, and so on. Though they did not require so much land for agriculture,

and the maintenance of their stock, they appropriated the whole; always strongly opposing any individual who might wish to settle on any land between them.

All the missions were under the charge of the priests of the order of San Francisco. Each mission was under one of the fathers, who had despotic authority. The general products of the missions were large cattle, sheep, horses, Indian corn, beans and peas. Those in the southern part of California, produced also the grape and olive in abundance. The most lucrative product was the large cattle, their hides and tallow affording an active commerce with foreign vessels, and being, indeed, the main support of the inhabitants of the territory.

From 1800 to 1830, the missions were in the height of their prosperity. Then, each mission was a little principality, with its hundred thousand acres and its twenty thousand head of cattle. All the Indian population, except the "Gentiles" of the mountains, were the subjects of the *padres*, cultivating for them their broad lands, and reverencing them with devout faith.

The wealth and power in possession of the missions, excited the jealousy of the Mexican authorities. In 1833, the government commenced a series of decrees, which eventually ruined them. In 1845, the obliteration of the missions was completed by their sale at auction, and otherwise.

Aside from the missions, in California, the inhabitants were nearly all gathered in the *presidios*, or forts, and in the villages, called '*Los Pueblos*.' The *presidios*, or fortresses, were occupied by a few troops under the command of a military prefect or governor. The Padre President, or Bishop, was the supreme civil, military and religious ruler of the province. There were four *presidios* in California, each of which had under its protection several missions. They were respectively, San Diego, Santa Barbara, Monterey, and San Francisco.

Within four or five leagues of the *presidios*, were certain farms, called *ranchios*, which were assigned for the use of the garrisons, and as depositories of the cattle and grain which were furnished as taxes from the missions.

Los Pueblos, or towns, grew up near the missions. Their first inhabitants consisted of retired soldiers and attaches of the army, many of whom married Indian women. Of the villages of this description, there were but three, viz: Los Angeles, San Jose, and Branciforte. In later times, the American emigrants established one on the Bay of San Francisco, called Yerba Buena, *i. e.* good herb, which became the nucleus of the flourishing city of San Francisco. Another was established by Capt. Sutter, on the Sacramento, called New Helvetia. The larger pueblos were under the government of an *alcalde*, or judge, in connection with other municipal officers.

The policy of the Catholic priests, who held absolute sway in California, until 1833, was to discourage emigration. Hence, up to about the year 1840, the villages named comprised all in California, independent of those at the missions; and at that time, the free whites and half-breed inhabitants in California numbered less than six thousand souls. The emigration from the United States first commenced in 1833; this had so increased from year to year, that, in 1846, Col. Fremont had but little difficulty in calling to his aid some five hundred fighting men. Some few resided in the towns, but a majority were upon the Sacramento, where they had immense droves of cattle and horses, and fine farms, in the working of which they were aided by the Indians. They were eminently an enterprising and courageous body of people, as none other at that time would brave the perils of an overland journey across the mountains. In the ensuing hostilities they rendered important services.

At that period, the trade carried on at the different towns was quite extensive, and all kinds of dry goods, groceries and hardware, owing to the heavy duties, ranged about five hundred per cent. above the prices in the United States. Mechanics and ordinary hands received from two to five dollars per day. The commerce was quite extensive, fifteen or twenty vessels not infrequently being seen in the various ports at the same time. Most of the merchant vessels were from the United States, which arrived in the spring, and engaged in the coasting trade until about the beginning of winter, when they departed with cargoes of hides,

tallow or furs, which had been collected during the previous year. Whale ships also touched at the ports for supplies and to trade, and vessels from various parts of Europe, the Sandwich Islands, the Russian settlements, and China."

From 1826 to 1846, the date of the conquest of California by the United States, there had been numerous civil revolutions in California; but Mexican authority was generally paramount. Of its conquest we give a brief account.

In July, 1846, at the beginning of the Mexican war, an American naval force, under Commodore Sloat, took Monterey and San Francisco. Sloat then dispatched a party to the mission of St. John, who there found that the American flag had been raised by Fremont. This officer, on his third exploring expedition, had arrived near Monterey in the preceding January, some months prior to the commencement of the war. Learning that Gen. De Castro, the military commandant at that place, intended to drive him from the country, he took a strong position in the mountains with his small party of 62 men, raised the American flag, and prepared for resistance. De Castro relinquished his design, but later prepared an expedition for Sonoma, to expel all the American settlers from the country. Fremont, on learning this, took Sonoma on the 15th of June by surprise, captured Gen. Vallejo and other officers, 9 cannon, 250 muskets, and a quantity of military stores. On the 4th of July, Fremont assembled the American settlers at Sonoma, and by his advice they raised the *revolutionary flag*, and prepared to fight for their independence. A few days later they learned, through the operations of Commodore Sloat, of the existence of war, and the star spangled banner was substituted for the standard of revolt.

Soon after, Fremont united his force of 160 men to the marines of Commodore Stockton, and they sailed to San Diego. From thence they marched up and took Los Angeles, the seat of government. Stockton established a civil government, and proclaimed himself governor. In September, Los Angeles being left with a small garrison, under Capt. Gillespie, was taken by a superior Mexican force led by Gen. Flores and Pico.

In November, the army of Gen. Kearney, having conquered New Mexico, arrived in their overland march across the continent, on the southern borders of California. On the 6th of December, an advance party of 12 dragoons and 39 volunteers had a battle with 160 mounted Mexicans near San Pasqual. The Americans were victorious. Gen. Kearney was twice wounded, Capts. Johnson and Moore, Lieut. Hammond and most of the other officers, together with nineteen of the men, were either killed or wounded.

On the 29th of December, Kearney took command of five hundred marines, with the land forces, and moved toward Angeles, to co-operate with Col. Fremont in quelling the revolt, now backed by a Mexican army of six hundred men, under Gen. Flores and Pico. These forces he met and defeated at San Gabriel on the 8th of January. The next day, he again fought and routed them at Mesa. The Mexicans then marched twelve miles past Angeles to Cowenga, where they capitulated to Col. Fremont, who had, after a tedious, wintry march from the north, of four hundred miles, arrived at that place.

On the 16th of January, Com. Stockton commissioned Fremont as governor, the duties of which he had discharged about six weeks, when Gen. Kearney, according to orders received from government, assumed the office and title of governor of California. Com. Shubrick, who was now the naval commander, co-operated with Kearney, whose forces were augmented about the last of January, by the arrival of Col. Cooke with the Mormon battalion, which had marched from Council Bluffs to Santa Fe.

Gen. Kearney, by direction of government, placing Col. Mason in the office of governor, on the 16th of June took his way homeward across the northern part of California, and from thence crossed the Rocky Mountains through the South Pass.

Before the news of peace was received in California, a new era commenced in the discovery of the gold mines. The peculiar state of affairs brought about by this, with the great rush of population, was such that the people were in a measure compelled to form a constitution of state government. The convention, for this purpose, met at Monterey in 1849, and on the 12th of October, formed the constitution, which was adopted by the people. After much delay, California was admitted into the Union by action of congress, in September, 1850.

The first officers elected under the state constitution were, Peter H. Burnett, governor; John McDougal, lieutenant governor; John C. Fremont, Wm. M. Gwin, U. S. senators; Geo. W. Wright, Edward Gilbert, U. S. representatives; Wm. Van Vorhies, secretary of state;

Richard Roman, treasurer; J. S. Houston, comptroller; Ed. J. C. Kewen, attorney general; Chas. J. Whiting, surveyor general; S. C. Hastings, chief justice; and J. A. Lyon and Nathaniel Bennett, associates.

California, one of the Pacific states, is about 750 miles long, with an average breadth of about 200 miles, giving an area of 150,000 square miles. Its southern boundary approximates in latitude to that of Charleston, South Carolina: its northern to that of Boston, Massachusetts. This, with its variation of surface, gives it a diversity of climate, and consequently of productions. Geographically, its position is one of the best in the world, lying on the Pacific fronting Asia.

"California is a country of mountains and valleys. The principal mountains are the Sierra Nevada, *i. e.* snowy mountains. This sierra is part of the great mountain range, which, under different names, extends from the peninsula of California to Russian America. Rising singly, like pyramids, from heavily timbered plateaux, to the height of fourteen and seventeen thousand feet above the ocean, these snowy peaks constitute the characterizing feature of the range, and distinguish it from the Rocky Mountains and all others on our part of the continent. The Sierra Nevada is the grandest feature of the scenery of California, and must be well understood before the structure of the country and the character of its different districts can be comprehended. Stretching along the coast, and at the general distance of one hundred and fifty miles from it, this great mountain wall receives the warm winds, charged with vapor, which sweep across the Pacific Ocean, precipitates their accumulated moisture in fertilizing rains and snows upon its western flank, and leaves cold and dry winds to pass on to the east. The region east of the sierra is comparatively barren and cold, and the climates are distinct. Thus, while in December the eastern side is winter, the ground being covered with snow and the rivers frozen, on the west it is spring, the air being soft, and the grass fresh and green. West of the Sierra Nevada is the inhabitable part of California. North and south, this region extends about ten degrees of latitude, from Oregon to the peninsula of California. East and west it averages, in the middle part, one hundred and fifty, and in the northern part, two hundred miles, giving an area of about 100,000 square miles. Looking westward from the summit, the main feature presented is the long, low, broad valley of the Joaquin and Sacramento Rivers—the two valleys forming one, five hundred miles long and fifty broad, lying along the base of the sierra, and bounded on the west by the low coast range of mountains, which separates it from the sea. Side ranges, parallel to the sierra and the coast, make the structure of the remainder of California, and break it into a surface of valleys and mountains—the valleys a few hundred, and the mountains two or three thousand feet above the sea. These form great masses, and at the north become more elevated, where some peaks, as the Shaste—which rises fourteen thousand feet, nearly to the height of Mount Blanc—enter the region of perpetual snow. The two rivers, San Joaquin and Sacramento, rising at opposite ends of the same great valley, receive their numerous streams, many of them bold rivers, unite half way, and enter the Bay of San Francisco together."

Greeley, in his letters written in 1859, gives a clear view of the resources of California. We here copy from them in an abridged form. The first quoted from was written at San Jose.

The state of California may be roughly characterized as two ranges of mountains—a large and a small one—with a great valley between them, and a narrow, irregular counterpart separating the smaller from the Pacific Ocean. If we add to these a small strip of arid, but fertile coast, and a broad sandy desert behind it, lying south-west of California proper, and likely one day to be politically severed from it, we have a sufficiently accurate outline of the topography of the Golden State.

Such a region, stretching from N. lat. 32 deg. 30 min. up to lat. 42 deg., and rising from the Pacific Ocean up to perpetually snow-covered peaks 15,000 feet

high, can hardly be said to have a climate. Aside from the Alpine crests of the sierra, and the sultry deserts below the Mohave and Santa Barbara, California embodies almost every gradation of climate, from the semi-arctic to the semi-tropical. There are green, fertile fields in the sierra which only begin to be well grassed when the herbage of the great valley is drying up, and from which the cattle are driven by snows as early as the 1st of October—long before grass begins to start afresh on the banks of the Sacramento. There are other valleys upon and near the sea-coast, wherein frost and snow are strangers, rarely seen, and vanishing with the night that gave them being. Generally, however, we may say of the state that it has a mild, dry, breezy, healthy climate, better than that of Italy, in that the sultry, scorching blasts from African deserts have here no counterpart. Save in the higher mountains, or in the extreme north-east, snow never lies, the earth never freezes, and winter is but a milder, greener, longer spring, throughout which cattle pick up their own living far more easily and safely than in summer.

The climate of the valleys may be said to be created, as that of the mountains is modified, by the influence of the Pacific Ocean. Sea breezes from the south-west in winter, from the north-west in summer, maintain an equilibrium of temperature amazing to New Englanders. San Francisco—situated on the great bay formed by the passage of the blended waters of the Sacramento and the San Joaquin—the former draining the western slope of the Sierra Nevada from the north, as the latter does from the south—is thus, as it were, in the throat of the bellows through which the damp gales from the Pacific are constantly rushing to cool the parched slopes or warm the snow-clad heights of the interior. I presume there was never a day without a breeze at San Francisco—generally a pretty stiff one. This sea breeze is always damp, often chilly, and rolls up clouds which hide the sun for a part, at least, of most days. Though ice seldom forms, and snow never lies in her streets, San Francisco must be regarded as a cold place by most of her visitors and unacclimated summer denizens. I presume a hot day was never known there, and no night in which a pair of good woolen blankets were not esteemed a shelter and a comfort by all but extremely hot-blooded people. Thick flannels and warm woolen outer garments are worn throughout the year by all who have or can get them. In short, San Francisco is in climate what London would be with her summer rains transformed into stiff and almost constant breezes.

The soil of California is almost uniformly good. The valleys and ravines rejoice in a generous depth of dark vegetable mold, usually mingled with or resting on clay; while the less precipitous hill sides are covered with a light reddish clayey loam of good quality, asking only adequate moisture to render it amply productive. Bring a stream of water almost anywhere, save on the naked granite, and you incite a luxuriant vegetation.

Yet the traveler who first looks down on the valleys and lower hill-sides of California in midsummer is generally disappointed by the all but universal deadness. Some hardy weeds, a little sour, coarse grass along the few still living water courses, some small, far-between gardens and orchards rendered green and thrifty by irrigation, form striking exceptions to the general paralysis of all annual manifestations of vegetable life.

... These slopes, these vales, now so dead and cheerless, are but resting from their annual and ever successful efforts to contribute bountifully to the sustenance and comfort of man. Summer is their season of torpor, as winter is ours. Dead as these wheat fields now appear, the stubble is thick and stout, and its indications are more than justified by the harvest they have this year yielded.

Cattle-growing was the chief employment of the Californians of other days, and cattle-growing, next after mining, is the chief business of the Californians of 1859. There are comparatively few farms yet established, while *ranches* abound on every side. A *corral*, into which to drive his wild herd when use or security is in question, and a field or two in which to pasture his milch cows and working cattle, are often all of the *ranch* that is inclosed; the herd is simply branded with the owner's mark and turned out to range where they will, being looked after occasionally by a mounted *vaquero*, whose horse is trained to dexterity in running among or around them.

Fruit, however, is destined to be the ultimate glory of California. Nowhere else

on earth is it produced so readily or so bountifully. Such pears, peaches, apricots, nectarines, etc., as load the trees of nearly every valley in the state which has had any chance to produce them, would stagger the faith of nine tenths of my readers. Peach trees only six years set, which have borne four large burdens of fruit while growing luxuriantly each year, are quite common. Apple trees, but three years set, yet showing at least a bushel of large, fair fruit, are abundant. I have seen peach trees four or five years from the states which have all the fruit they can stagger under, yet have grown three feet of new wood over this load during the current season. Dwarf pears, just stuck into the black loam, and nowise fertilized or cultivated, but covered with fruit the year after they were set, and thenceforward bearing larger and larger yields with each succeeding summer, are seen in almost every tolerably cared-for fruit patch. I can not discover an instance in which any fruit-tree, having borne largely one year, consults its dignity or its ease by standing still or growing wood only the next year, as is common our way. I have seen green gages and other plum-trees so thickly set with fruit that I am sure the plums would far outweigh the trees, leaves and all. And not one borer, curculio, caterpillar, apple-worm, or other nuisance of that large and undelightful family, appears to be known in all this region. Under a hundred fruit-trees, you will not see one bulb which has prematurely fallen—a victim to this destructive brood.

That California is the richest of all the American states in timber, as well as in minerals, I consider certain, though the forests of Oregon are doubtless stately and vast. Even the Coast Range between San Jose valley and Santa Cruz on the southwest, is covered by magnificent redwood—some of the trees sixteen feet through, and fifty in circumference. In soil, I can not consider her equal to Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, or Minnesota, though the ready markets afforded by her mines to her farms probably render this one of the most inviting states to the enterprising, energetic husbandman. But it must be considered that not half the soil of California can ever be deemed arable; the larger area being covered by mountains, ravines, deserts, etc.

The persistent summer drouth is not an unmixed evil. It is a guaranty against many insects, and against rust, even in the heaviest grain. Grain and hay are got in at far less cost and in much better average condition here than they can be where the summers are not cloudless nor rainless. Weeds are far less persistent and pestilent here than at the east; while the air is so uniformly dry and bracing, and the days so generally tempered by a fresh breeze, that the human frame maintains its elasticity in spite of severe and continued exertion. I was never before in a region where so much could be accomplished to the hand in summer as just here.

Irrigation is exceptional, even here. All the grains are grown here without irrigation; but the small grains are hurried up quite sharply by drouth, and in some instances blighted by it, and at best are doubtless much lighter than they would be with a good, soaking rain early in June; while Indian corn and most roots and vegetables can only in favored localities be grown to perfection without artificial watering. I estimate that, if all the arable land in the state, fertile as it undoubtedly is, were seasonably planted to corn and fairly cultivated, without irrigation, the average yield would fall below ten bushels per acre. Hence every garden throughout the state, save a part of those near the coast and within the immediate influence of the damp sea breeze, must have its stream of water or it comes to nothing, and various devices are employed to procure the needful fluid. Of these I like Artesian wells far best; and they are already numerous, especially in this valley. But ordinary wells, surmounted by windmills which press every casual breeze into the service and are often pumping up a good stream of water while the owner and all hands are asleep, are much more common, and are found to answer very well; while some keep their little gardens in fair condition by simply drawing water, bucket after bucket, in the old, hard way.

In a subsequent letter, written from Marysville, the chief town of northern California, at the junction of the Yuba and Feather Rivers, Mr. Greeley gives a description of what he saw of the agricultural riches of that fertile region. We again quote:

The edifice erected by the public spirit of Marysville for the fairs which are to be held here annually, and at which all northern California is invited to compete for very liberal premiums, is quite spacious and admirably adapted to its purpose; and herein is collected the finest show of fruits and vegetables I ever saw at anything but a state fair. Indian corn not less than twenty feet high; squashes like brass kettles and water-melons of the size of buckets, are but average samples of the wonderful productiveness of the Sacramento and Yuba valleys, while the peaches, plums, pears, grapes, apples, etc., could hardly be surpassed anywhere. The show of animals is not extensive, but is very fine in the departments of horses and horned cattle. The most interesting feature of this show was its young stock—calves and colts scarcely more than a year old, equal in weight and size, while far superior in form and symmetry, to average horses and bulls of ripe maturity. With generous fare and usage, I am confident that steers and heifers two years old in California will equal in size and development those a year older in our northern states, and California colts of three years be fully equal to eastern colts of like blood and breeding a good year older—an immense advantage to the breeder on the Pacific. I am reliably assured that steers a year old, never fed but on wild grass, and never sheltered, have here dressed six hundred pounds of fine beef. Undoubtedly, California is one of the cheapest and best stock growing countries in the world—and will be, after these great, slovenly ranches shall have been broken up into neat, modest farms, and when the cattle shall be fed at least three months in each year on roots, hay and sorghum, or other green fodder.

The valleys of the Yuba and Feather Rivers are exceedingly deep and fertile, and their productiveness in this vicinity almost surpasses belief. I visited this morning, in the suburbs, gardens, vineyards, orchards, of rarely equaled fruitfulness. The orchard of Mr. Briggs, for example, covers 160 acres, all in young fruit, probably one half peaches. He has had a squad of thirty or forty men picking and boxing peaches for the last month, yet his fruit by the cartload ripens and rots ungathered. The wagons which convey it to the mines have their regular stations and relays of horses like mail stages, and are thus pulled sixty miles up rough mountain passes, per day, where twenty-five miles would be a heavy day's work for any one team. But he is not sending to the mines only, but by steamboat to Sacramento and San Francisco as well. His sales last year, I am told, amounted to \$20,000; his net income, was not less than \$40,000. And this was realized mainly from peaches, apricots and nectarines; his apples and pears have barely begun to bear; his cherries will yield their first crop next year. There are of course heavier fruit growers in California than Mr. Briggs, but he may be taken as a fair sample of the class. Their sales will doubtless be made at lower and still lower prices; they are now a little higher than those realized for similar fruit grown in New Jersey; they were once many times higher than now; but, though their prices steadily decrease their incomes do not, because their harvests continued to be augmented by at least twenty five per cent. per annum.

Let me give one other instance of successful fruit growing in another district: Mr. Fallon, the mayor of San Jose, has a fine garden, in which are some ten or twelve old pear trees—relics of the Spanish era and of the Jesuit missions. The trees being thrifty but the fruit indifferent, Mr. F. had them pretty thoroughly grafted with the Bartlett variety, and the second year thereafter gathered from one tree one thousand pounds of Bartlett pears, which he sold for \$200, or twenty cents per pound. The other trees similarly treated bore him six to seven hundred pounds each of that large, delicious fruit, which he sold at the same price. And, every year since, these trees have borne large yields of these capital pears.

Just a word now on grain. California is still a young state, whose industry and enterprise are largely devoted to mining; yet she grows the bread of her half a million well-fed inhabitants on less than a fortieth part of her arable soil, and will this year have some to spare. I am confident her wheat crop of 1859, is over four millions of bushels, and I think it exceeds twenty-five bushels for each acre sown. To-day, its price in San Francisco is below a dollar a bushel, and it is not likely to rise very soon. Though grown, harvested and threshed by the help of labor which costs her farmers from thirty to forty dollars per month, beside board, it is still mainly grown at a profit; and so of a very large breadth of barley, grown

here instead of oats as food for working horses and cattle. Though wheat is probably the fullest, I judge that barley is the surest of any grain crop grown in the state. It has never failed to any serious extent.

Indian corn is not extensively grown; only the Russian River and one or two other small valleys are generally supposed well adapted to it. And yet, I never saw larger or better corn growing than stands to-day right here on the Yuba—not a few acres merely, but hundreds of acres in a body. I judge that nearly all the intervals throughout the state would produce good corn, if well treated. On the hill-sides, irrigation may be necessary, but not in the valleys. None has been resorted to here, yet the yield of shelled grain will range between 75 and 100 bushels per acre. And this is no solitary instance. Back of Oakland, across the bay from San Francisco, Mr. Hobart, a good farmer from Massachusetts, showed me acres of heavy corn which he planted last May, after the rains had ceased and the dry season fairly set in, since which no hoe nor plow had been put into the field; yet the soil remains light and porous, while there are very few weeds. Not one drop of water has been applied to this farm; yet here are not only corn, but potatoes, beets, etc., with any number of young fruit trees, all green and thriving, by virtue of subsoiling and repeated plowings last spring. The ground (sward) was broken up early in the winter, and cross-plowed whenever weeds showed their heads, until planting time; and this discipline, aided by the drouth, has prevented their starting during the summer. Such thorough preparation for a crop costs something; but, this once made, the crop needs here only to be planted and harvested. Such farming pays.

The fig tree grows in these valleys side by side with the apple; ripe figs are now gathered daily from nearly all the old Mexican gardens. The olive grows finely in southern California, and I believe the orange and lemon as well. But the grape bids fair to become a staple throughout the state. Almost every farmer who feels sure of his foothold on the land he cultivates either has his vineyard already planted, or is preparing to plant one, while most of those who have planted are extending from year to year. I have looked through many of these vineyards, without finding one that is not thrifty—one that, if two years planted, is not now loaded with fruit. The profusion and weight of the clusters is marvelous to the fresh beholder. I will not attempt to give figures; but it is my deliberate judgment that grapes may be grown here as cheaply as wheat or corn, pound for pound, and that wine will ultimately be made here at a cost per gallon not exceeding that of whisky in Illinois or Ohio. Wine will doubtless constitute a heavy export of California within a very few years. So, I think, will choice timber, should the wages of labor ever fall here so as to approximate our eastern standards.

I can not conclude this survey without alluding once more to the deplorable confusion and uncertainty of land titles which has been and still is the master scourge of this state. The vicious Spanish-Mexican system of granting lands by the mere will of some provincial governor or municipal chief, without limitation as to area or precise delineation of boundaries, here develops and matures its most pernicious fruits. Your title may be ever so good, and yet your farm be taken from under you by a new survey, proving that said title does not cover your tract, or covers it but partially. Hence many refuse or neglect to improve the lands they occupy, lest some title adverse to theirs be established, and they legally ousted or compelled to pay heavily for their own improvements. And, in addition to the genuine Spanish or Mexican grants, which the government and courts must confirm and uphold, there are fictitious and fraudulent grants—some of them only trumped up to be bought off, and often operating to create anarchy and protract litigation between settlers and the real owners. Then there are doubtless squatters who refuse to recognize and respect valid titles, and waste in futile litigation the money that might make the lands they occupy indisputably their own. Were the titles to lands in California to-day as clear as in Ohio or Iowa, nothing could check the impetus with which California would bound forward in a career of unparalleled thrift and growth. It were far better for the state and her people that those titles were wrongly settled than that they should remain as now. I met to-day an intelligent farmer who has had three different farms in this state, and has lost them successively by adjudications adverse to his title. The present cost of

litigation, enormous as it is, is among the lesser evil consequences of this general anarchy as to land titles.

Should these ever be settled, it will be probably found advisable to legislate for the speedy breaking up and distribution of the great estates now held under good titles by a few individuals. There will never be good common schools on or about these great domains, which will mainly be inhabited by needy and thriftless tenants or dependents of the landlords. An annual tax of a few cents per acre, the proceeds to be devoted to the erection of school houses and the opening of roads through these princely estates, would go far to effect the desired end. But, whether by this or some other means, the beneficent end of making the cultivators of the soil their own landlords must somehow be attained—the sooner the better, so that it be done justly and legally. In the course of several hundred miles' travel through the best settled portions of this state, I remember having seen but two school houses outside of the cities and villages, while the churches are still more uniformly restricted to the centers of population. Whenever the land titles shall have been settled and the arable lands have become legally and fairly the property of their cultivators, all this will be speedily and happily changed.

There are two seasons in California, the dry and the rainy, the latter extending from the 1st of November to the 1st of April. During the rainy season are intervals of fine weather, in which all the plowing and sowing is done.

"The mining interests of California are vast and inexhaustible. The state abounds in mineral wealth, and in great varieties, and there is no knowing to what extent these riches may be developed. The gold region embraces a district of country extending from the Oregon line on the north to Kern River in the south, a distance of nearly five hundred miles in length, and from ten to one hundred and fifty miles in width. Mining is successfully carried on in some twenty-five counties, and not more than one fifth of this gold region is occupied by miners at the present time." From 1849 to 1860, it was estimated that gold to the value of 600 millions of dollars had been taken out of the mines of California and sent abroad.

"In a few years California will become a vast empire within herself. The people have the use of all the mineral lands without any cost whatever, except the tax on their personal property, but no mining claim is taxed. Every vacant piece of land in the mines is subject to location by any one who may wish to settle on it, and as long as he remains his possessory right is as good a title as he wants. The mineral lands are expressly reserved from sale by act of congress, and the legislation of the state, so far, has been to let them alone, yet recognizing the rules of each mining camp as the law under which the miners hold their different kind of claims.

The pre-emption laws of the United States have been extended to California, and persons settling upon the public land can have the benefit of them. Of the surveyed lands the state is entitled to the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections of each township, for school purposes. She was granted 500,000 acres by congress for internal improvements, but a provision in her constitution diverts them to educational purposes. Thus California has over 6,000,000 acres out of which to build up her school system.

She has also 5,000,000 of acres of swamp land, donated her by congress. This land is destined to become the most valuable in the state. It is all alluvial and of inexhaustible richness. By an act of the state legislature, any person can locate 640 acres of this at one dollar an acre, by paying one fifth down and the balance in five years. She is thus the absolute owner of over eleven millions of acres, and constituting a basis of prosperity and usefulness of which perhaps no other state can boast."

The population of California, January 1, 1849, was estimated at 26,000, viz: natives of the country, not including Indians, 13,000; United States Americans, 8,000; and Europeans, 5,000. The whole number of Indians

was probably then about 40,000. In 1832, a state census gave the population as 264,435. The census of 1860 gave a population of 384,770. A very large proportion of the inhabitants are males and of mixed nationalities. A California writer thus estimates the number of the various classes of the population in 1859:

"There may now be 125,000 voters in the state, certainly not more. Of alien men, there are about 15,000 Frenchmen, 7,000 Spanish Americans, 8,000 Britons and Irishmen, 4,000 Italians, 5,000 Germans, and 6,000 miscellaneous Europeans—40,000 alien white men in all. We have thus 170,000 white men. There are 50,000 Chinamen,* as ascertained from the custom house books. This figure is more exact than the census returns will be. Thus we have 220,000 men, of whom about 88,000 (two fifths) reside in the farming districts, including the cities, and three fifths in the mining districts. In the former there are, on an average, two men to a woman; in the latter, five men to a woman; so that, in the farming districts, there will be of men and women, 132,000, and in the mining districts, 158,400, or 70,400 women in the state. Add 90,000 minors, including school children, and we have 380,400. To these add 5,000 negroes and 9,600 Indians, and we have 395,000 as the total population of the state. The mining districts have a large majority of the Chinamen and aliens; the farming districts have a majority of the citizens, and a large majority of the women and children. Of the nativity of the 125,000 voters, I make the following estimate, viz: 40,000 native Americans from the free states, 30,000 Americans from the slave states, 25,000 Irishmen, 20,000 Germans, and 10,000 miscellaneous persons of foreign birth, including British, Hungarians, Spaniards, etc. If this estimate be correct, you will perceive that our population is very much mixed. But the English language prevails everywhere, and in another generation it will be the mother tongue of all the children born of parents now in the state."

SAN FRANCISCO, the commercial capital of California, is in the same latitude with Lisbon, and also with Richmond, Virginia, and distant on an air line from the latter 2,500 miles. Its latitude is $37^{\circ} 48'$ and longitude $122^{\circ} 25'$ W. from Greenwich. Her trade is immense, being the fourth commercial city in the Union. Her situation is unrivaled, fronting the Pacific at the head of the magnificent Bay of San Francisco, which has no equal for a line of thousands of miles of coast. "The connection of San Francisco with the great interior valley of the state being the only water communication with it, together with its easy communication with Asia, gives it vast commercial advantages. Approaching it from the sea, the coast presents a bold mountainous outline. The bay is entered by a strait running east and west, about a mile broad at its narrowest part, and five miles long from the ocean, when it opens to the north and south, in each direction more than thirty miles. It is divided by straits and projecting points, into three separate bays, the two northern being called San Pablo and Suisun, and the southern, San Francisco. The strait is called the 'Golden Gate,' on the same principle that the harbor of Constantinople was called the 'Golden Horn,' viz: its advantages for commerce."

* "Of all this number of 50,000 Chinamen, by the laws of California, not one is allowed to vote, not one to give evidence in a court of justice, but kept virtually outlawed, and liable to all manner of unlimited abuse, robbery, or personal cruelty, with no possibility of redress, except some European happens to be an eye-witness. If some renegade Celt or Saxon wishes to plunder a Chinaman, knowing the law and the poor man's defenselessness, he has but to choose a time when none but Chinese eyes are looking on! A hundred Chinese may witness a deed of violence, but their united testimony is worthless and inadmissible against a European or American evil-doer within the limits of the state."

San Francisco, as a town, is of very recent origin: but the immediate vicinity has a history dating back to the year 1776. Then the Mission of San Francisco was founded, which stood two and a half miles south-west of the cove of Yerba Buena; at the same time was erected a presidio and a fort



Harbor of San Francisco.

along the margin of the Golden Gate. In 1835, the first habitation was reared on the site of San Francisco, by Capt. W. A. Richardson, who, being appointed harbor master, erected a tent of a ship's foresail, and supported it by four redwood posts. His business was to manage two schooners, which brought produce from the various missions and farms to the sea going vessels that came into the cove. In May, 1836, Mr. Jacob Primer Leese arrived in the cove, with the intention of establishing a mercantile business in connection with partners at Monterey. He erected the first frame house, which was 60 by 25 feet, placing it alongside of the tent of Richardson, and on the

site of the St. Francis Hotel, corner of Clay and Dupont-streets. The mansion was finished on the 4th of July, and the day was celebrated by a grand banquet. The guests, numbering about 60, consisted of the principal Mexican families of the neighborhood, together with the officers of two American and one Mexican vessel in port. Outside of the building the American and Mexican flags waved together in amicable proximity, within, toasts were drank and good cheer prevailed: half a dozen instruments added their enlivening strains to the general enjoyment. two six pounders hard-by occasionally opened their throats and barked forth with an emphasis proper to the occasion. Mr. Leese subsequently married a sister of General Vallejo, one of his guests on this occasion, and on the 15th of April, 1838, was born Rosalia Leese, the first born of *Yerba Buena*, as the place was then called from the wild mint growing on the hills.

A few other houses were soon after built, and the Hudson's Bay Company became interested in the place; their agents and people came to form nearly the entire settlement. Late as 1844, Yerba Buena contained only about a dozen houses. In 1846, this company disposed of their property and removed from the place, when the progress of the Mexican war threw it into American hands, and it then advanced with wonderful rapidity. By the end of April 1848, the era of the gold discovery, the town contained 200 dwellings and 1,000 inhabitants, comprised almost entirely of American and European emigrants.

The church, tavern and printing office are an indispensable adjunct to all American settlements. In January, 1847, appeared the first newspaper, the *California Star*, published by Samuel Brannan, and edited by Dr. E. P. Jones. In the first month of its issue was printed an ordinance, from the alcalde, Mr. Bartlett, changing the name of the place from Yerba Buena to San Francisco.

The first alcalde of San Francisco, under the American flag, was Washington A. Bartlett, a lieutenant of the navy, who, being ordered to his ship, was succeeded on the 22d of February, 1847, by Edwin Bryant. Under Mexican laws an alcalde has entire control of municipal affairs, and administers justice in ordinary matters according to his own ideas of right, without regard to written law. On the Americans taking possession of the country, they temporarily made use of the existing machinery of local government, everywhere appointed alcaldes, and instructed them to dispense justice with a general regard to the Mexican laws and the provincial customs of California.

In December, 1847, occurred the event which was so suddenly to transform California from a wilderness into a great state, and San Francisco from a petty village into a great commercial metropolis—the *discovery of gold*. "Early in 1848, the news spread to the four quarters of the globe, and immediately adventurers from every land came thronging to this new El Dorado. The magnificent harbor of San Francisco made this port the great rendezvous for the arriving vessels, and from this period dates the extraordinary increase and prosperity of the Californian metropolis. In the first four months of the golden age, the quantity of precious dust brought to San Francisco was estimated at \$850,000. In February, 1849, the population of the town was about 2,000; in August it was estimated at 5,000. From April 12, 1849, to the 29th of January, 1850, there arrived by sea 39,888 emigrants, of whom 1,421 only were females. In the year ending April 15, 1850, there arrived 62,000 passengers. In the first part of 1850, San Francisco became a city, with a population of 15,000 to 20,000; and in 1860, it had 56,805, together with the largest trade of any city on the Pacific side of the American continent.

The magical effect upon San Francisco of the discovery of gold, is thus described in the *Annals of the city*:

Early in the spring of this year (1848), occasional intelligence had been received

of the finding of gold in large quantities among the foot hills of the Sierra Nevada. Small parcels of the precious metal had also been forwarded to San Francisco, while visitors from the mines, and some actual diggers arrived, to tell the wonders of the region and the golden gains of those engaged in exploring and working it. In consequence of such representations, the inhabitants began gradually, in bands and singly, to desert their previous occupations, and betake themselves to the American River and other auriferous parts of the great Sacramento valley. Labor, from the deficiency of hands, rose rapidly in value, and soon all business and work, except the most urgent, was forced to be stopped. Seamen deserted from their ships in the bay and soldiers from the barracks. Over all the country the excitement was the same. Neither threats, punishment nor money could keep men to their most solemn engagements. Gold was the irresistible magnet that drew human souls to the place where it lay, rudely snapping asunder the feeble ties of affection and duty. Avarice and the overweening desire to be suddenly rich, from whence sprang the hope and moral certainty of being so, grew into a disease, and the infection spread on all sides, and led to a general migration of every class of the community to the golden quarters. The daily laborer, who had worked for the good and at the command of another, for one or two dollars a day, could not be restrained from flying to the happy spot where he could earn six or ten times the amount, and might possibly gain a hundred or even a thousand times the sum in one lucky day's chance. Then the life, at worst, promised to be one of continual adventure and excitement, and the miner was his own master. While this was the case with the common laborer, his employer, wanting his services, suddenly found his occupation at an end; while shopkeepers and the like, dependent on both, discovered themselves in the same predicament. The glowing tales of the successful miners all the while reached their ears, and threw their own steady and large gains comparatively in the shade. They therefore could do no better, in a pecuniary sense even, for themselves, than to hasten after their old servants, and share in their new labor and its extraordinary gains, or pack up their former business stock, and traveling with it to the mines, open their new shops and stores and stalls, and dispose of their old articles to the fortunate diggers, at a rise of five hundred or a thousand per cent.

In the month of May it was computed that at least one hundred and fifty people had left San Francisco, and every day since was adding to their number. Some were occasionally returning from the auriferous quarter; but they had little time to stop and expatiate upon what they had seen. They had hastily come back, as they had hastily gone away at first, leaving their household and business to waste and ruin, now to fasten more properly their houses, and remove goods, family and all, at once to the gold region. Their hurried movements, more even than the words they uttered, excited the curiosity and then the eager desire of others to accompany them. And so it was. Day after day the bay was covered with launches, filled with the inhabitants and their goods, hastening up the Sacramento. This state of matters soon came to a head; and master and man alike hurried to the *placeres*, leaving San Francisco, like a place where the plague reigns, forsaken by its old inhabitants, a melancholy solitude.

On the 29th of May, the "Californian" published a fly-sheet, apologizing for the future non-issue of the paper, until better days came, when they might expect to retain their servants for some amount of remuneration, which at present was impossible, as all, from the "subs" to the "devil," had indignantly rejected every offer, and gone off to the diggings. "The whole country," said the last editorial of the paper, "from San Francisco to Los Angeles, and from the sea shore to the base of the Sierra Nevada, resounds with the sordid cry of *gold! gold!! GOLD!!!*—while the field is left half planted, the house half built, and everything neglected but the manufacture of shovels and pick-axes, and the means of transportation to the spot where one man obtained one hundred and twenty-eight dollars' worth of the *real stuff* in one day's washing, and the average for all concerned is *twenty dollars per diem!*"

Within the first eight weeks after the "diggings" had been fairly known, two hundred and fifty thousand dollars had reached San Francisco in gold dust, and within the next eight weeks, six hundred thousand more. These sums were all to

purchase, at any price, additional supplies for the mines. Coin grew scarce, and all that was in the country was insufficient to satisfy the increased wants of commerce in one town alone. Gold dust, therefore, soon became a circulating medium, and after some little demur at first, was readily received by all classes at sixteen dollars an ounce. The authorities, however, would only accept it in payment of duties at ten dollars per ounce, with the privilege of redemption, by payment of coin, within a limited time.

When subsequently immigrants began to arrive in numerous bands, any amount of labor could be obtained, provided always a most unusually high price was paid for it. Returned diggers, and those who cautiously had never went to the mines, were then also glad enough to work for rates varying from twelve to thirty dollars a day; at which terms capitalists were somewhat afraid to commence any heavy undertaking. The hesitation was only for an instant. Soon all the labor that could possibly be procured, was in ample request at whatever rates were demanded. The population of a great state was suddenly flocking in upon them, and no preparations had hitherto been made for its reception. Building lots had to be surveyed, and streets graded and planked—hills leveled—~~beds~~ bays, lagoons, and the bay itself, piled, capped, filled up and planked—lumber, bricks, and all other building materials, provided at most extraordinarily high prices—houses built, finished and furnished—great warehouses and stores erected—wharves run far out into the sea—numberless tons of goods removed from shipboard, and delivered and shipped anew everywhere—and ten thousand other things had all to be done without a moment's unnecessary delay. Long before these things were completed, the sand hills and barren ground around the town were overspread with a multitude of canvas, blanket and bough-covered tents—the bay was alive with shipping and small craft carrying passengers and goods backward and forward—the unplanked, ungraded, unformed streets (at one time moving heaps of dry sand and dust; at another, miry abysses, whose treacherous depths sucked in horse and dray, and occasionally man himself), were crowded with human beings from every corner of the universe and of every tongue—all excited and busy, plotting, speaking, working, buying and selling town lots, and beach and water lots, shiploads of every kind of assorted merchandise, the ships themselves, if they could—though that was not often—gold dust in hundred weights, ranches square leagues in extent, with their thousands of cattle—allotments in hundreds of contemplated towns, already prettily designed and laid out—on paper—and, in short, speculating and gambling in every branch of modern commerce, and in many strange things peculiar to the time and place. *And everybody made money, and was suddenly growing rich.**

The loud voices of the eager seller and as eager buyer—the laugh of reckless joy—the bold accents of successful speculation—the stir and hum of active, hurried labor, as man and brute, horse and bullock, and their guides, struggled and managed through heaps of loose rubbish, over hills of sand, and among deceiving deep mud pools and swamps, filled the amazed newly arrived immigrant with an almost appalling sense of the exuberant life, energy and enterprise of the place. He breathed quick and faintly—his limbs grew weak as water—and his heart sunk within him as he thought of the dreadful conflict, when he approached and mingled among that confused and terrible business battle.

Gambling saloons, glittering like fairy palaces, like them suddenly sprang into existence, studding nearly all sides of the plaza, and every street in its neighborhood. As if intoxicating drinks from the well plenished and splendid bar they each contained were insufficient to gild the scene, music added its loudest, if not

*Johnson, in his "Sights in the Gold Region," states "Lumber sold as high as \$600 per thousand feet. The most necessities of life commanded the most extravagant prices. Landresses received \$8 per dozen, and cooks \$150 per month; and it was nearly impossible to obtain either. The prices of houses and lots were from \$10,000 to \$75,000, each. A lot purchased two years ago for a barrel of *aguardiente* was sold recently for \$18,000. One new three story frame hotel, about forty by sixty feet, cost \$180,000, and rented for an interest of more than twenty per cent. per annum; small rooms for gambling purposes renting for \$100 per month. Yet, notwithstanding these enormous incomes, speculation so raged that as high as twenty-five per cent. was actually paid for the use of money for one week."

its sweetest charms; and all was mad, feverish mirth, where fortunes were lost and won, upon the green cloth, in the twinkling of an eye. All classes gambled in those days, from the starchiest white neck clothed professor to the veriest black rascal that earned a dollar for blacking massa's boots. Nobody had leisure to think even for a moment of his occupation, and how it was viewed in Christian lands. The heated brain was never allowed to get cool while a bit of coin or dust was left. These saloons, therefore, were crowded, night and day, by impatient revelers who never could satiate themselves with excitement, nor get rid too soon of their golden heaps.

The very thought of that wondrous time is an electric spark that fires into one great flame all our fancies, passions and experiences of the fall of that eventful year, 1849. The world had perhaps never before afforded such a spectacle; and probably nothing of the kind will be witnessed for generations to come. A city of twenty or thirty thousand inhabitants improvised—the people nearly all adult males, strong in person, clever, bold, sanguine, restless and reckless."

The proceedings of the famous "Vigilance Committee" of San Francisco at the time excited the surprise of the outside world. It was, however, an organization that arose from the necessities of the community: its acts were justified by the great body of the citizens, while its members comprised the first men in business and social standing in the city.

Up to the beginning of 1851, the emigration to California had been immense. Nearly a quarter of a million of men, strangers from various parts of the world, had been suddenly thrown into this new land, and scattered among the newly established towns and over the different mining districts. The institutions of law, in but a forming state, failed to give adequate protection. Among the inhabitants were a large number of criminals and vile men from various countries. The most numerous and daring class of desperadoes were the convicted felons of the English penal colonies, who, having "served their time," early contrived to sail for California. These "Sydney coves," as they were called, reaped a rich harvest in California, and for a while it seemed impossible to check their crimes.

Around Clark's Point and vicinity, in San Francisco, was the rendezvous of these villains. "Low drinking and dancing houses, lodging and gambling houses of the same mean class, the constant scenes of lewdness, drunkenness and strife, abounded in the quarter mentioned. The daily and nightly occupants of these vile abodes had every one, more or less, been addicted to crime; and many of them were at all times ready, for the most trifling consideration, to kill a man or fire a town. During the early hours of night, when the Alsatia was in revel, it was dangerous in the highest degree for a single person to venture within its bounds. Even the police hardly dared to enter there; and if they attempted to apprehend some known individuals, it was always in a numerous, strongly-armed company. Seldom, however, were arrests made. The lawless inhabitants of the place united to save their luckless brothers, and generally managed to drive the assailants away. When the different fires took place in San Francisco, bands of plunderers issued from this great haunt of dissipation, to help themselves to whatever money or valuables lay in their way, or which they could possibly secure. With these they retreated to their dens, and defied detection or apprehension. Fire, however, was only one means of attaining their ends. The most daring burglaries were committed, and houses and persons rifled of their valuables. Where resistance was made, the bowie knife or the revolver settled matters, and left the robber unmolested. Midnight assaults, ending in murder, were common. And not only were these deeds perpetrated under the shade of night; but even in daylight, in the highways and byways of the country, in the streets of the town, in crowded bars, gambling saloons and lodging houses, crimes of an equally glaring character were of constant occurrence. People at that period generally carried during all hours, and wherever they hap-

pened to be, loaded firearms about their persons; but these weapons availed nothing against the sudden stroke of the 'slung shot,' the plunge and rip of the knife, or the secret aiming of the pistol. No decent man was in safety to walk the streets after dark; while at all hours, both of night and day, his property was jeopardized by incendiarism and burglary.

All this while, the law, whose supposed 'majesty' is so awful in other countries, was here only a matter for ridicule. The police were few in number, and poorly

as well as irregularly paid. Some of them were in league with the criminals themselves, and assisted these at all times to elude justice. Subsequent confessions of criminals on the eve of execution, implicated a considerable number of people in various high and low departments of the executive. Bail was readily accepted in the most serious cases, where the security tendered was absolutely worthless; and where, whenever necessary, both principal and cautioner quietly disappeared. The prisons likewise were small and insecure; and though filled to overflowing, could no longer contain the crowds of apprehended offenders. When these were ultimately brought to trial, seldom could a conviction be obtained. From technical errors on the part of the prosecutors, laws ill understood and worse applied, false swearing of the witnesses for the prisoners, absence often of the chief evidence for the prosecution, dishonesty of jurors, incapacity, weakness, or venality of the judge, and from many other causes, the cases generally broke down and the prisoners were freed. *Not one criminal*



HANGING OF WHITTAKER AND MCKENZIE,

By the San Francisco Vigilance Committee.

had yet been executed. Yet it was notorious, that, at this period, at least one hundred murders had been committed within the space of a few months; while innumerable were the instances of arson, and of theft, robbery, burglary, and assault with intent to kill. It was evident that the offenders defied and laughed at all the puny efforts of the authorities to control them. The tedious processes of legal tribunals had no terrors for them. As yet everything had been pleasant and safe, and they saw no reason why it should not always be so. San Francisco had just been destroyed, a fifth time, by conflagration. The cities of Stockton and Nevada had likewise shared the same fate. That part of it was the doing of incendiaries no one doubted; and too, no one doubted but that this terrible state of things would continue, and grow worse until a new and very different executive from the legally constituted one should rise up in vengeance against those pests that worried and preyed upon the vitals of society. It was at this fearful time that the Vigilance Committee was organized."

This was in June, 1851, at which time the association organized "for the protection of the lives and property of the citizens and residents of the city of San Fran-

cisco." They formed a constitution and selected a room in which to hold their meetings, which were entirely secret. The first person they arrested was John Jenkins, a notorious "Sydney cove." He was seized for stealing a safe on the 10th of June. About 10 o'clock that night, the signal for calling the members was given—the tolling of the bell of the Monumental Engine Company. Shortly afterward about 80 members of the committee hurried to the appointed place, and giving the secret password were admitted. For two long hours the committee closely examined the evidence and found him guilty. "At midnight the bell was tolled, as sentence of death by hanging was passed upon the wretched man. The solemn sounds at that unusual hour filled the anxious crowds with awe. The condemned at this time was asked if he had anything to say for himself, when he answered: "No, I have nothing to say, only I wish to have a cigar." This was handed to him, and afterward, at his request, a little brandy and water. He was perfectly cool, and seemingly careless, confidently expecting, it was believed, a rescue, up to the last moment.

A little before one o'clock, Mr. S. Brannan came out of the committee rooms, and ascending a mound of sand to the east of the Rasette House, addressed the people. He had been deputed, he said, by the committee, to inform them that the prisoner's case had been fairly tried, that he had been proved guilty, and was condemned to be hanged; and that the sentence would be executed within one hour upon the plaza. He then asked the people if they approved of the action of the committee, when great shouts of *Ay! Ay!* burst forth, mingled with a few cries of *No!* In the interval a clergyman had been sent for, who administered the last consolations of religion to the condemned.

Shortly before two o'clock, the committee issued from the building, bearing the prisoner (who had his arms tightly pinioned) along with them. The committee were all armed, and closely clustered around the culprit to prevent any possible chance of rescue. A procession was formed; and the whole party, followed by the crowd, proceeded to the plaza, to the south end of the adobe building, which then stood on the north-west corner. The opposite end of the rope which was already about the neck of the victim was hastily thrown over a projecting beam. Some of the authorities attempted at this stage of affairs to interfere, but their efforts were unavailing. They were civilly desired to stand back, and not delay what was still to be done. The crowd, which numbered upward of a thousand, were perfectly quiescent, or only applauded by look, gesture, and subdued voice the action of the committee. Before the prisoner had reached the building, a score of persons seized the loose end of the rope and ran backward, dragging the wretch along the ground and raising him to the beam. Thus they held him till he was dead. Nor did they let the body go until some hours afterward, new volunteers relieving those who were tired holding the rope. Little noise or confusion took place. Muttered whispers among the spectators guided their movements or betrayed their feelings. The prisoner had not spoken a word, either upon the march or during the rapid preparations for his execution. At the end he was perhaps strung up almost before he was aware of what was so immediately coming. He was a strong-built, healthy man, and his struggles, when hanging, were very violent for a few minutes."

The next execution which took place was about a month later, that of James Stuart. He was an Englishman, who had been transported to Australia for forgery. On leaving it, he wandered in various parts of the Pacific until he reached California, where he was supposed to have committed more murders and other desperate crimes than any other villain in the country. Before his death he acknowledged the justice of his punishment. He was hung July 11th, from a derrick at the end of Market-street wharf, in the presence of assembled thousands.

One more month rolled round, and the committee again exercised their duties upon the persons of Samuel Whittaker and Robert McKenzie, who were guilty of robbery, murder and arson, and on trial confessed these crimes. The sheriff and his posse with a writ of *habeas corpus*, took these men from the hands of the committee and confined them in jail. The latter, fearful that the rascals would escape through the quibbles of the law, prepared for the rescue.

"About half past two o'clock," says the *Annals of San Francisco*, "on the after-

noon of Sunday, the 24th of August, an armed party, consisting of thirty-six members of the Vigilance Committee, forcibly broke into the jail, at a time when the Rev. Mr. Williams happened to be engaged at devotional exercises with the prisoners, among whom were Whittaker and McKenzie. The slight defense of the jailers and guards was of no avail. The persons named were seized, and hurried to and placed within a coach, that had been kept in readiness a few steps from the prison. The carriage instantly was driven off at full speed, and nearly at the same moment the ominous bell of the Monumental Engine Company rapidly and loudly tolled for the immediate assemblage of the committee and the knell itself of the doomed. The whole population leaped with excitement at the sound; and immense crowds from the remotest quarter hurried to Battery-street. There blocks, with the necessary tackle, had been hastily fastened to two beams which projected over the windows of the great hall of the committee. Within seventeen minutes after the arrival of the prisoners, they were both dangling by the neck from these beams. The loose extremities of the halters being taken within the building itself and forcibly held by members of the committee. Full six thousand people were present, who kept an awful silence during the short time these preparations lasted. But so soon as the wretches were swung off, one tremendous shout of satisfaction burst from the excited multitude; and then there was silence again.

This was the last time, for years, that the committee took or found occasion to exercise their functions. Henceforward the administration of justice might be safely left in the hands of the usual officials. The city now was pretty well cleansed of crime. The fate of Jenkins, Stuart, Whittaker and McKenzie showed that rogues and roguery, of whatever kind, could no longer expect to find a safe lurking-place in San Francisco. Many of the suspected, and such as were warned off by the committee, had departed, and gone, some to other lands, and some into the mining regions and towns of the interior. Those, however, who still clung to California, found no refuge anywhere in the state. Previously, different cases of lynch law had occurred in the gold districts, but these were solitary instances which had been caused by the atrocity of particular crimes. When, however, the Vigilance Committee of San Francisco had started up, fully organized, and began their great work, Sacramento, Stockton, San Jose, as well as other towns and the more thickly peopled mining quarters, likewise formed their committees of vigilance and safety, and pounced upon all the rascals within their bounds. These associations interchanged information with each other as to the movements of the suspected; and all, with the hundred eyes of an Argus and the hundred arms of a Briareus, watched, pursued, harassed, and finally caught the worst desperadoes of the country. Like Cain, a murderer and wanderer, as most of them were, they bore a mark on the brow, by which they were known. Some were hanged at various places, some were lashed and branded, but the greater number were simply ordered to leave the country, within a limited time, under penalty of immediate death if found after a stated period within its limits. Justice was no longer blind or leaden-heeled. With the perseverance and speed of a bloodhound, she tracked criminals to their lair, and smote them where they lay. For a long time afterward, the whole of California remained comparatively free from outrages against person and property.

From all the evidence that can be obtained, it is not supposed that a single instance occurred in which a really innocent man suffered the extreme penalty of death. Those who were executed generally confessed their guilt, and admitted the punishment to have been merited."

San Francisco, in common with all of the American cities in California, has suffered terribly from tremendous conflagrations. The towns when first founded were composed mostly of frail wooden tenements, intermingled with tents, which in the dry season became like tinder, so that when a fire broke out and got headway it was impossible to arrest it. San Francisco, Sacramento, City, Stockton, and other places were several times successively destroyed.

No sooner, however, was the work of destruction completed, than the inhabitants rushed forth like so many bees, and dashing aside the smoking embers, went to work to build new habitations; when lo! in a twinkling, a fairer city would arise, as it were by magic, on the ashes of the old, called forth by the matchless energy and fertility of invention of the most extraordinary, wonder-working body of men that had ever been gathered to found a state—the adventurous and enterprising of every clime, self-exiles, driven thither by the eager thirst for *gold*.

Before midsummer of 1851, San Francisco had been visited by six "great" fires, most of them the work of incendiaries. By them nearly all the old land marks and buildings of Yerba Buena had been obliterated, and the total value of property destroyed amounted to about twenty millions. The most destructive was that of the 4th May, 1851, when, in the short space of ten hours, nearly 2,000 houses were destroyed, many lives, and property to the amount of from ten to twelve millions.

"A considerable number of buildings, which were supposed fire-proof, had been erected in the course of the preceding year, the solid walls of which, it was thought, would afford protection from the indefinite spreading of the flames, when fire should unhappily break out in any particular building. But all calculations and hopes on this subject were mocked and broken. The brick walls that had been so confidently relied upon, crumbled in pieces before the furious flames; the thick iron shutters grew red hot and warped, and only increased the danger and insured final destruction to everything within them. Men went for shelter into these fancied fire-proof brick and iron bound structures, and when they sought to come forth again, to escape the heated air that was destroying them as by a close fire, they found, O horror! that the metal shutters and doors had expanded by the heat, and could not be opened! So, in these huge, sealed furnaces, several perished miserably. . . . San Francisco had never before suffered so severe a blow, and doubts were entertained by the ignorant that she could possibly recover from its effects. Such doubts were vain. The *bay* was still there, and the *people* were also there; the *placers* of the state were not yet exhausted, and its soil was as fertile and inviting as ever. The frightful calamity, no doubt, would retard the triumphant progress of the city—but only for a time. The citizens of San Francisco were content only to curse and vow vengeance on the incendiaries that kindled the fire, and resolved to be better prepared in future to resist its spreading ravages. After the first short burst of sorrow, the ruined inhabitants, many of whom had been burnt out time after time by the successive fires, began again, like the often persecuted spider with its new web, to create still another town and another fortune."

The city of San Francisco being at first a city of strangers, the post-office, on the arrival of the monthly steamer from the Atlantic states was the scene of exhibitions of an interesting character from the assembled multitudes that gathered for letters, most from loved ones at home, thousands of miles away.

At a distance they looked like a mob; but, on approaching, one would find that though closely packed together, the people were all in six strings, the head of each being at a delivery window, from whence the lines twisted up and down in all directions, extending along the streets to a great distance, the new comers being at the end of the line. So anxious were many to receive their epistles that they posted themselves in the evening of one day to be early at the window on the morning of the next, standing all night in the mud, often with a heavy rain pouring on their heads. "Hours always elapsed before one's turn came. To save such delay, sometimes people would employ and handsomely pay others to preserve places for them, which they would occupy, in room of their assistants, when they were approaching the loop-holes where the delivery clerks stood. Ten and twenty dollars were often paid for accommodation in this way. Some of these eager applicants had not heard from their far distant homes for many long months, and their

anxious solicitude was even painful. It was therefore exceedingly distressing to mark the despondency with which many would turn away upon hearing from the delivery clerks the oft-repeated and much-dreaded sentence, 'there is *nothing* here for you.' On the other hand, it was equally pleasing to observe the cheerful and triumphant smile, not unfrequently accompanied with a loud exclamation of joy, that would light up the countenance of the successful applicant, who hastens from the window, and as soon as he can force a passage through the crowd, tears open and commences to read the more than welcome letter, every word of which awakens in his mind some tender reminiscence."

SACRAMENTO CITY is the second city in commerce and population in California. It is on the left bank of the Sacramento, a little below the mouth of the American, in the midst of a level and fertile country: distance, by water, 140 miles N.E. of San Francisco. It has great advantages as a center of commerce, being accessible for sailing vessels and steamers of a large size at all seasons: both the Sacramento and its important branch, the Feather River, is navigable for small steamers far above into the interior of the country. It is the natural trading depot for all the great mining region of the north Sacramento valley. The site being low, the city has suffered in its early history by disastrous floods in the rainy season: it is now protected by levees. Population about 30,000.

The site of Sacramento City was originally in possession of Capt. John A. Sutter, a Swiss gentleman, who established himself in the country in 1839, and soon after built "Sutter's Fort," taking possession of the surrounding country under a Mexican grant, giving to it the name of *New Helvetia*. "From this point he cut a road to the junction of Sacramento and American Rivers, where he established an *embarcadero* (quay, or landing place), on the site of which has since been built the City of Sacramento. Here he remained for several years, his settlement being the head-quarters of the immigrants, who, following his example, poured into the country from the American states."

Coloma is about 50 miles N.E. of Sacramento City, on the left bank of the South Fork of American River. It contains some 4,000 inhabitants.

In the winter of 1847-'48, Capt. Sutter contracted with Mr. James W. Marshall, an emigrant from New Jersey, to erect a saw mill on the river near the site of Coloma. This accidentally led to the *discovery of gold*, which at once changed the history of California. "Marshall one day in January, having allowed the whole body of water to rush through the tail-race of the mill for the purpose of making some alterations in it, observed, while walking along the banks of the stream early the next morning, numerous glistening particles among the sand and gravel, which had been carried off by the force of the increased body of water. For a while he paid no particular attention to them, but seeing one larger and brighter than the rest, he was induced to examine it, and found it to be a scale of gold. Collecting several, he immediately hurried to Sutter, and began his tale in such a hurried manner, and accompanied it with such extravagant promises of unbounded wealth, that the captain thought him demented, and looked to his rifle for protection; but when Marshall threw his gold upon the table, he was forced into the delightful conviction. They determined to keep the discovery a secret, but were observed while examining the river, and soon had immense armies around them."

The neighborhood literally overflowed with the busy gold hunters, and

from thence they rapidly extended to the different gold districts, so that by midsummer they amounted to many thousands. At first the general gains of the miners, though great, were nothing to what was shortly after collected. The average was usually from ten to fifteen dollars per day. Some met with extraordinary success.

"Well authenticated accounts described many known persons as averaging from one to two hundred dollars a day for a long period. Numerous others were said

to be earning from five to eight hundred dollars a day. A piece of four pounds in weight was early found. If, indeed, in many cases, a man with a pick and pan did not easily gather some thirty or forty dollars worth of dust in a single day, he just moved off to some other place which he supposed might be richer. When the miners knew a little better about the business and the mode of turning their labor to the most profitable account, the returns were correspondingly increased. At what were called the 'dry diggings' particularly, the yield of gold was enormous. One piece of pure metal was found of thirteen pounds weight. The common instrument at first made use of was a simple butcher's knife; and as everything was valuable in proportion to the demand and supply, butchers' knives suddenly went up to twenty and thirty dollars apiece. But afterward the pick and



SUTTER'S MILL.

Where Gold was first discovered.

shovel were employed. The auriferous earth, dug out of ravines and holes in the sides of the mountains, was packed on horses, and carried one, two, or three miles, to the nearest water, to be washed. An average price of this washing dirt was, at this period, so much as four hundred dollars a cart load. In one instance, five loads of such earth sold for seven hundred and fifty-two dollars, which yielded, after washing, sixteen thousand dollars. Cases occurred where men carried the earth in sacks on their backs to the watering places, and collected eight to fifteen hundred dollars in a day, as the proceeds of their labor. Individuals made their five thousand, ten thousand, and fifteen thousand dollars in the space of only a few weeks. One man dug out twelve thousand dollars in six days. Three others obtained eight thousand dollars in a single day. But these, of course, were extreme cases. Still it was undoubtedly true, that a large proportion of the miners were earning such sums as they had never even seen in their lives before, and which, six months earlier, would have appeared a downright fable.

The story has a shady as well as a bright side, and would be incomplete unless both were shown. There happened to be a 'sickly season' in the autumn at the mines; many of the miners sank under fever and diseases of the bowels. A severe kind of labor, to which most had been unaccustomed, a complete change of diet

and habits, insufficient shelter, continued mental excitement, and the excesses in personal amusement and dissipation which golden gains induced, added to the natural unhealthiness that might have existed in the district at different periods of the year, soon introduced sore bodily troubles upon many of the mining population.



WASHING GOLD WITH THE LONG TOOL.

No gains could compensate a dying man for the fatal sickness engendered by his own avaricious exertions. In the wild race for riches, the invalid was neglected by old comrades still in rude health and the riotous enjoyment of all the pleasures that gold and the hope of continually adding to their store could bestow. When that was the case with old companions, it could not be expected that strangers should care whether the sick man lived or died. Who forsooth among the busy throng would trouble himself with the feeble miner that had miscalculated his energies, and lay dying on the earthen floor of his tent or under the protecting branch of a tree? Many, not so far reduced, were compelled to return to their old homes, the living spectres of their former selves, broken in constitution and wearied in spirit; thoroughly satisfied that the diggings were not fit abiding places for them.

The implements at first used in the process of gold seeking, were only the common pick and shovel, and a tin pan or wooden bowl. The auriferous earth when dug out was put into the last, and water being mixed with it, the contents were violently stirred. A peculiar shake of the hand or wrist, best understood and learned by practice, threw occasionally over the edge of the pan or bowl the muddy water and earthy particles, while the metal, being heavier, sunk to the bottom. Repeated washings of this nature, assisted by breaking the hard pieces of earth with the hand or a trowel, soon extricated the gold from its covering and carried away all the dirt. But if even these simple implements were not to be had, a sailor's or butcher's knife, or even a sharpened hard-pointed stick could pick out the larger specimens—the *pepitas*, *chunks*, or *nuggets*, of different miners—while the finer scales of gold could be washed from the covering earth in Indian

willow-woven baskets, clay cups, old hats, or any rude apology for a dish; or the dried sand could be exposed on canvas to the wind, or diligently blown by the breath, until nothing was left but the particles of pure gold that were too heavy to be carried away by these operations. Afterward the rocker or cradle and long Tom were introduced, which required several hands to feed and work them; and the returns by which were correspondingly great. Every machine, however, was worked on the same principle, by rocking or washing, of separating by the mechanical means of *gravitation*, the *heavier* particles—the *gold* from stones, and the *lighter* ones of earth.

Provisions and necessities, as might have been expected, soon rose in price enormously. At first the rise was moderate indeed, four hundred *per cent.* for flour, five hundred for beef cattle, while other things were in proportion. But these were trifles. The time soon came when eggs were sold at one, two, and three dollars apiece; inferior sugar, tea, and coffee, at four dollars a pound in small quantities, or three or four hundred dollars a barrel; medicines—say, for laudanum, a dollar a drop (actually forty dollars were paid for a dose of that quantity), and ten dollars a pill or purge, without advice, or with it, from thirty, up, aye, to one hundred dollars. Spirits were sold at various prices, from ten to forty dollars a quart; and wines at about as much per bottle."

Among the modes of mining early adopted was one termed "cayoteing," or drifting. The word is derived from *cayote*, the name applied to the prairie wolf, and as used, means burrowing, after the manner of that animal. Cayoteing was only necessary in those cases where the gold by its superior weight had sunk through the surface earth, until it had reached the layer of clay on the bed rock, often many fathoms from the top. Having reached by a shaft the "hard pan," the miner then ran passages horizontally in search of the gold, taking care to prop up the roofs of these passages. Often, however, these have slowly yielded under the immense masses above, and buried the gold hunter beyond all human resurrection. Cayoteing has been superseded by tunneling. Tunnels are run into the sides of mountains, following the uneven surface of the bed rock. Some of these are a quarter of a mile or more in length and involve an immense labor and expense. From them the "pay dirt" is carried out of the mine in carts drawn by mules over railroads.

The old mining localities of California, the flats and bars of rivers, are now pretty much exhausted, and there is very little of the old modes of mining followed, excepting by the Chinese, who, content with small earnings, take up the abandoned claims. Tunneling, quarts, sluice, and hydraulic mining are now the means by which the larger part of the gold is obtained. Through the improvements in machinery and contrivances for saving the gold, the yield is constantly augmenting, and as the gold region of California comprises a tract about as large as all New England, it is presumed that the state for 100 years to come will continue to yield at least as much as since the first discovery—viz: fifty millions per annum.

The most efficient mode of operation is *hydraulic mining*. A heavy current of water is poured from a hose and pipe, precisely on the principle of a fire engine, upon a side hill. For instance, "at North San Juan, near the middle fork of the Yuba, streams at least three inches in diameter, and probably containing twenty measured inches of water, are directed against the remaining half of a high hill, which they strike with such force that boulders of the size of cannon balls are started from their beds and hurled five to ten feet in the air. By this process, one man will wash away a bank of earth like a haystack sooner than a hundred men could do it by old-fashioned sluicing. Earth yielding a bare cent's worth to the pan may be profitably washed by this process, paying a reasonable price for the water. As much as \$100 per day is profitably paid for the water thrown through one pipe. The stream thus thrown will knock a man as lifeless as though it were a grape-shot. As the bank, over a hundred feet high, is undermined by this battery, it frequently caves from the top downward, reaching and burying the careless operator. Very long sluices—as long as may be—conduct the discharged water away; and it is no matter how thick with earth the water may run, provided the sluice be long enough. It is of course so arranged as to present riffles, crevices, etc., to arrest the gold at first borne along by the turbid flood. There are companies operating by this method whose gross receipts from a single sluice have reached a thousand dollars per day."

"In California the whole art of placer-mining was revolutionized by this hydraulic process, and the production of gold received a fresh and lasting impulse. Square miles of surface on the hills, rich in gold, which have lain untouched, now yield up their treasure to the hydraulic miner. In that region, where labor can scarcely be obtained, and is so costly, water becomes the great substitute for it, and, as we have seen, is more effective and economical in its action than the labor

of men. Every inch of water which can be brought to bear upon a placer is valued as the representative, or producer, of a certain amount of gold. Wherever it falls upon the auriferous earth it liberates the precious metal, and if the gold is uniformly distributed through the earth, the amount produced is directly as the



HYDRAULIC MINING.

quantity of water used. As a labor saving process, the results of this method compare favorably with those obtained by machinery in the various departments of human industry, where manual labor has been superseded.

It is stated that at the close of the year 1858 there were 5,726 miles of artificial water-courses for mining purposes in the state of California, constructed at a cost of over 13 millions of dollars. This estimate is exclusive of several hundred miles of new canals in course of construction, and of the many subordinate branches of the canals, the aggregate length of which is estimated at over one thousand miles. Most of the canals have been constructed by individuals, or small companies of from three to ten persons, but the works compare in their magnitude and cost with the most important public works.

A vast deal of this canalizing is over the most wild, rocky, and precipitous country; jumping over awful chasms, and plunging down fearful abysses; trestle work, story piled upon story, and wooden fluming zigzagged at every angle (rough as yet, truly, but with strength adequate to its purpose), may be seen winding for miles and miles its tortuous course, leading mountain streams far away from their native channels, and giving to the driest diggings water superabundant. The waterfall at the end is generally very great, and it is turned to curious account.

Next to the hydraulic process of hose-washing, the most important application of water in placer mining is in *sluicing*. The sluice is a long channel or raceway, cut either in the surface of the bed rock or made of boards. The former is known as the *ground sluice*, and the latter as the *board-slifice*. The ground sluice is cut in the softened surface or outcrop of the bed-rocks, which are generally of slate, presenting upturned edges like the leaves of a book. In the softened mica slates this resemblance is very great, and the surface is highly favorable to the retention of particles of gold. It is easily cleaned up, as one or two inches in depth of the surface may usually be scraped off with the shovel. The board-slifice is generally twelve or fifteen inches in width, and from eight to ten inches deep, and is made in convenient lengths, so that one can be added to another, until a length of two or three hundred feet or more is obtained. False bottoms of boards are often used to facilitate the retention of the gold, while the stones and gravel are swept away by the rapid flow of the water. Long bars or *rifflers* are generally preferred to cross cleats or holes. The fall or rate of descent of the bottom of the sluice is varied according to circumstances, being arranged to suit the size of the gold and the nature of the drift. One or two feet in a rod, or one foot in twelve, is a common inclination, and with a good supply of water will cause stones several inches in diameter to roll from one end of the sluice to the other. The earth, stones and gold as they enter these sluices with the water, are all mingled together, but the current soon effects a separation; the lighter portions are swept on in advance, and the gold remains behind, moving slowly forward on the bottom until it drops down between the cleats or bars. The larger stones and coarse gravel are swept on by

the current, and after traversing the whole length of the sluice, are thrown out at the lower end. The operation, as in the hydraulic or hose process, with which the sluice is always combined, is a continuous one, and requires comparatively little labor or attention, except to keep the sluice from clogging. In some localities, where the depth of the auriferous gravel and overlying clay and soil is not great,

water may be used to as great advantage in the sluice as under pressure. It has this advantage, that the auriferous earth may be washed as high up as the source of supply. The process is a close imitation of the operations of nature in concentrating gold in the deposits along the streams."

Quartz mining is the reduction to powder of the vein stone, which contains the gold, which is extracted from the powder by means of water, quicksilver, etc. There are so many practical difficulties in the way that it is very rarely attended with success, as the expenses eat up the profits, the gold not usually averaging more than one cent in a pound of rock. The quartz works at Allison's Rancho, in Grass Valley, and those at Fremont's Rancho, in Bear Valley, are worked to great profit. Col.

Fremont's mines produce gold to

the value of several hundred thousand dollars per annum, though at an immense outlay for mills, waterworks, etc. His great mine, it is supposed, contains 10 millions of dollars worth of gold above the water level of the Merced, from near which it rises up a pyramid of gold-bearing quartz, inclosed in a mountain of slate.



FREMONT'S RANCHE.

Marysville, the chief town of northern California, is located at the junction of the Yuba and Feather Rivers, just above their union with the Sacramento, about 10 miles north of Sacramento City. It is a well built town, principally of brick, and at the head of navigation in the direction of the northern mines. The country around it is of great fertility, and the town itself rapidly growing. Population about 16,000.

In the vicinity of Marysville, and easterly, toward the slopes of the Sierra Nevada, are the important mining towns of *Nevada*, *Grass Valley*, *Auburn*, *Placerville*, *Diamond*, *Mesa Springs*. North of it, near the north line of the state, are the little thriving towns of *Shasta City* and *Treka*, the former deriving its name from Mount Shasta, in its vicinity, at the head of Sacramento valley, the highest mountain in California, a vast cone of snow rising to the height of 15,000 feet into the blue above.

Stockton disputes with Marysville the reputation of being the third city in importance in the state; and is the depot for the southern mines. It is situated on a bayon of San Joaquin, at the head of regular steamboat navigation, and is 48 miles south of Sacramento City, and by water 125 miles east of San Francisco. The channel is navigable for steamboats and vessels of

400 tons, affording at all seasons ready communication with the Pacific, and the town has an extensive carrying trade. Here is the State Insane Asylum, a cabinet of natural history, and an Artesian well of 1,000 feet in depth. Stockton has some fine fruit gardens, and the foliage of these, together with an abundance of wide spreading oaks, gives the place a grateful aspect. Population about 16,000.

Sonora, the most important mining town in the southern mines, lies 130 miles east of San Francisco, and about 60 east of Stockton, and contains some 4,000 inhabitants. North-westerly from it are the mining towns of *Mokelumne Hill*, *Columbia*, and *Murpheys*. At the former is a noted mining canal of 40 miles in length. Within 15 miles of the latter, 86 from Stockton, and 213 from San Francisco, is the famous "Mammoth Tree Grove." A late visitor gives this description:

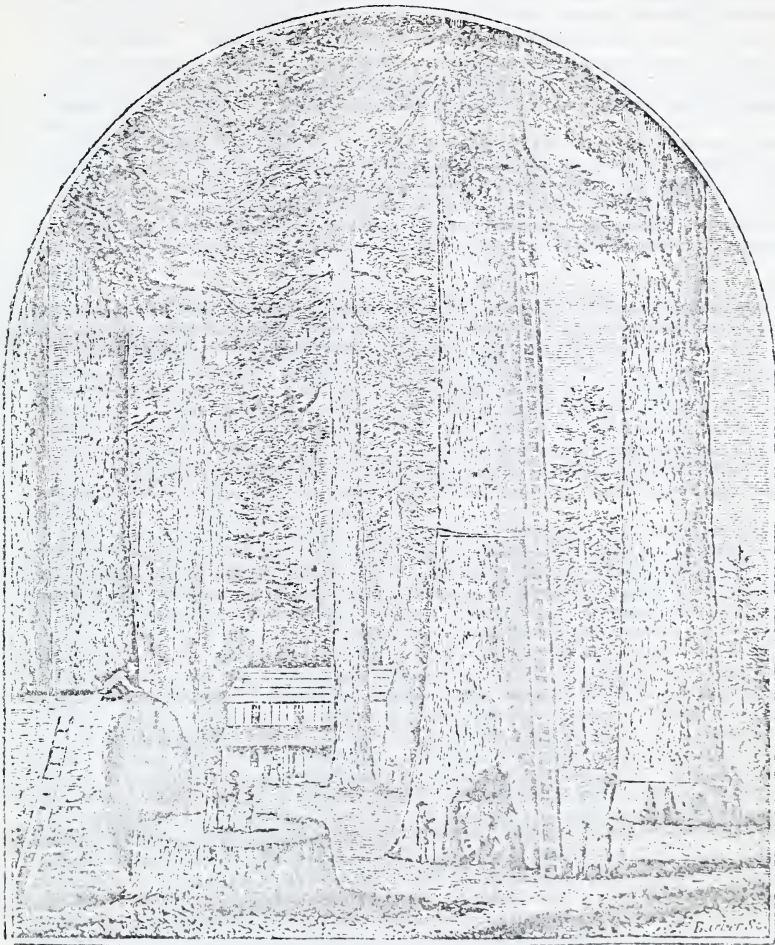
The "Big Tree Grove" occupies a space of about fifty acres, other evergreen trees being interspersed among them. The ground is "claimed" by the owners of the hotel, to whom it will prove a pretty fortune. It occupies a level plateau in the Sierra Mountains, and is elevated 4,500 feet above tide water. The mammoth trees are of a species unknown except in California.

The bark is very porous, so that it is used for pincushions. It is on some of the trees nearly two feet thick! The foliage is of a deep green, like that of the arbutus, and the seeds are contained in a small cone. The wood is of a red color, like the cedar, and somewhat like the redwood of California. Still the tree differs from all these essentially. It is estimated by calculations based on the rings or layers which indicate the annual growth, that the largest of these trees are more than *three thousand* years old! A correspondent of the London Times made one, of the wood and bark of which he had a specimen, six thousand four hundred and eight years old. They are no doubt "the oldest inhabitants" of the state. A path has been made through the grove, leading by the most notable specimens, and each has been named, and has a label of wood or tin attached, on which is inscribed its name and size. In several cases, beautiful white marble tablets, with raised letters, have been let into the bark. There are, in all, *ninety four* of these monster trees, with multitudes of others from a foot high and upward.

Near the house is the stump of a tree that was felled in 1853 by the vandals. The stump is seven feet high, and measures in *diameter*, at the top, *thirty feet*. I paced it, and counted thirty paces across it. A canvas house has been erected over and around it, and a floor laid on the same level adjoining, and here dances are often had upon the stump, whose top has been smoothed for the purpose. Four quadrilles have been performed at once upon it, and the Alleghenians once gave a concert to about fifty persons here, performers and audience all occupying the stump. A portion of the trunk lies on the ground, divested of bark, and steps, twenty-six in number, have been erected, as nearly perpendicular as possible, by which visitors ascend its side as it lies upon the ground. The vandals had a hard job when they cut down this giant. It was accomplished by boring a series of holes with a large auger to the center and completely round it, the holes being of course fifteen feet deep each. Five men worked steadily for 25 days; and then so plumb was the tree that it would not fall. After trying various means to topple it over, at length they cut a large tree near it so that it should fall against it, but still it stood. A second attempt with another tree was successful, and it was forced over, and fell with a crash which made everything tremble, and which reverberated far and near through the mountains and forests. The solid trunk snapped in several places like a pipe-stem. The top of the stump is as large as the space *lengthwise* between the walls of two parlors, with folding doors, of fifteen feet each. Imagine the side walls spread apart to double their width, and then the stump would fill all the space! But at the roots, seven feet lower, it is much larger.

"Hercules" is the largest perfect standing tree, and it has been computed to contain seven hundred and twenty-five thousand feet of lumber, or enough to load a large clipper ship. It leans remarkably toward one side, so that the top is from

forty to fifty feet out of the perpendicular. It should have been named "The Leaning Tower." It is thirty-three feet between two roots that enter the ground near opposite sides of the trunk.



Mammoth Tree Grove, in the Valley of the Calaveras.

The trees are evergreens and ninety-four of them are yet standing, many of which rise to more than 500 feet in height. One, which has blown down, measured 110 feet in circumference, and was 150 high. Another, which had fallen and is hollow, is ridden through on horse-back for 75 feet. Some of them are estimated to be more than 3,000 years old. The bark is nearly two feet thick, and being porous is used for pine-shakes.

"The Husband and Wife" seem very affectionate, leaning toward each other so that their tops touch. They are two hundred and fifty feet high, and sixty each in circumference. "The Family Group" consists of two very large trees, the father and mother, with a family of *grown-up* children, twenty-four in number, around them, all large enough to be of age and to speak for themselves! The father blew down many years ago, having become feeble from old age. The trunk is hollow as it lies upon the ground, and would accommodate half a regiment with quarters.

The circumference is one hundred and ten feet, or upward of thirty-three diameter! Its height was four hundred and fifty feet, as great as that of the dome of St. Peter's at Rome! Near what was the base of the trunk, and within the cavity, there is now a never-failing pond of water, fed by a spring. Nearly half the trunk is embedded in the ground. The mother still stands amid her children and little grandchildren. She 327 feet high, 91 feet in circumference—a stately old dame!

"The Horseback Ride" is an old hollow tree fallen and broken in two. I rode through the trunk a distance of 75 feet on horseback, with a good sized horse, as did my wife also. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" is hollow for some distance above the base, and 25 persons can seat themselves in the space.

"The Mother of the Forest" is 90 feet round, and 328 feet high. To the height of 116 feet the bark has been taken off by some speculators, who carried it in sections to Paris, for exhibition. The staging on which they worked is still standing around the trunk. But so immense was the size indicated, that the Parisians would not believe it was all from one tree, and charged the exhibitor with Yankee trickery, and branded the whole thing a humbug, and as the result he lost considerable money in his speculation. The tree is now dead.

In one place we saw a small part of the trunk of what was an enormous tree, which had fallen probably centuries ago, and become imbedded in the earth, and so long ago did this happen, that three very large trees had grown up over its butt so as to inclose it with their roots completely. It was ludicrous to see as we did in one place, near one of the largest trees, a little one, about two feet high, growing from the seed of the large one, and evidently starting with high hopes and youthful ambition in the race of life. What a job, thought I, has that little fellow before him to work himself up 300 or 400 feet to reach the altitude of his father and uncles and aunts. But we bid him God speed, and I doubt not, if he perseveres, he will one day stand as proudly erect as his ancestors, and three thousand years hence he will be an object of as great curiosity and reverence to those who shall come after us as "Hercules" is now to us! What will be the condition and population of California and of the United States then?

But, seriously, I think I never was inspired with greater awe by an object on which I looked, than I felt when I walked about among these noble and ancient "sons of the forest," or rather patriarchs of the wood. To think that I stood beside and looked up toward the towering heads of trees that were standing, or at least had begun their growth, when Solomon's Temple was commenced; that were more than a thousand years old when the Savior of men trod the soil of Palestine; were ancients at the period of the Crusades! One sees in Europe old castles, and looks with reverence upon them as he thinks of their heavy antiquity, but these trees were between one thousand and two thousand years old when the foundations of the oldest building now standing in Europe were laid. I can think of but one thing more awe inspiring, and that is the group of Egyptian pyramids.

One must actually look upon these objects, however, to realize the impression they make. He must study their proportions, calculate their altitude, compare them with other large trees or lofty objects, and he must do this repeatedly before he can take in the idea. It is a universal remark of visitors that the conception of the reality grows upon them every time they examine them, and that, at first sight, as in the case of Niagara Falls, there is a feeling of disappointment.

Seeds have been sent to Europe, and scattered over our Union, and trees are growing from them in some parts of the United States, but it is doubtful whether in any other soil or climate than that of California, they will ever make such a growth as is seen here.

One thing is remarkable about these trees, viz: that although of such an immense age, many of them, yet where they have been unmolested by man and unscathed by fire, they still seem sound to the core and vigorous, the foliage is bright and constantly growing, and one can not see why they may not live one thousand or two thousand years more. The spot where they stand is beautiful. "We enter a dell," says Dr. Bushnell, "quietly lapped in the mountains, where the majestic vegetable minarets are crowded, as in some city of pilgrimage, there to look up, for the first time, in silent awe of the mere life principle." There is another grove as remarkable in Mariposa county, and smaller collections of the same species elsewhere, but they are not common all over the state.

Dr. Bushnell's theory of the enormous growths of California, is that the secret lies in these things:—First, a soil too deep and rich for any growth to measure it; second, a natural under supply of water or artificial irrigation; next, the settings of fruit are limited. And then, as no time is lost in cloudings and rain, and the sun drives on his work unimpeded, month by month, the growth is pushed to its utmost limit. But these [generous occasional specimens] are freaks or extravagances of nature—only such as can be equaled nowhere else. The big trees depend, in part, on these same contingencies, and partly on the remarkable longevity of their species. A tree that is watered without rain, having a

deep vegetable mold in which to stand, and not so much as one hour's umbrella of cloud to fence off the sun for the whole warm season, and a capacity to live withal for two thousand years or more, may as well grow three hundred and fifty or four hundred feet high and twenty-five feet in diameter, and show the very center point or pith still sound at the age of thirteen hundred [or three thousand] years, as to make any smaller figure."

Coulterville and Mariposa are mining towns, south-easterly from Stockton. Near Mariposa is *Fremont's Vein*, and 45 miles east of Coulterville is the celebrated "Valley of the Yo-hamite," which is pronounced by travelers one of the greatest of curiosities. It is a vast gorge in the Sierra, through which flows the Merced, a beautiful crystal stream, which rises high up in the mountains.

"Picture to yourself a perpendicular wall of bare granite nearly or quite a mile high! Yet there are some dozen or score of peaks in all, ranging from 2,000 to 5,000 feet above the valley, and a biscuit tossed from any of them would strike very near its base, and its fragments go bounding and falling still further. No single wonder of Nature on earth can claim a superiority over the Yo-hamite. Just dream yourself for one hour in a chasm nearly ten miles long, with egress for birds and water out at either extremity, and none elsewhere save at these points, up the face of precipices from 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, the chasm scarcely more than a mile wide at any point, and tapering to a mere gorge or canon at either end, with walls of mainly naked and perpendicular white granite, from 3,000 to 5,000 feet high, so that looking up to the sky from it is like looking out of an unfathomable profound—and you will have some conception of the Yo-hamite."

The highest known cataract on the globe is in this valley, the Yo-hamite Fall, which tumbles over a perpendicular ledge, 1,800 feet at one plunge, then taking a second plunge of 400, ends by a third leap of 600, making in all 2,800 feet, or over half a mile in descent. The stream being small looks, in the distance, more like a white ribbon than a cascade. The Merced enters the valley by more imposing cataracts of nearly 1,000 feet fall. How many other wonders exist in this strange locality remains for farther exploration to unfold. "The valley varies from a quarter to a mile in width, the bottom level and covered with a luxuriant growth of vegetation, grass interspersed with beautiful flowers, and the finest of pines and evergreen shrubs, and the pure, clear, sparkling Merced River winding its ways, 'at its own sweet will,' through the midst. With its two points of egress guarded, no human being, once placed here within its rocky mountain walls, could ever hope to escape."

Beside the mountain ranges, with their summits clad with everlasting snow, and the beautiful scenery rendered more attractive by the wonderful purity of the atmosphere, California possesses many natural curiosities, among which are "The Geysers," or hot sulphur springs, of Napa county, and the "natural bridges," of Calaveras.

"The Geysers are from one to nine feet in diameter, and constantly in a boiling state, ejecting water to heights of 10 to 15 feet. Hundreds of fissures in the side of the mountain emit strong currents of heated gas, with a noise resembling that of vapor escaping from ocean steamers. We condense the following from Silliman's Journal, of Nov., 1851, by Professor Forest Shepard: 'From a high peak we saw on the W. the Pacific, on the S. Mount Diablo and San Francisco Bay, on the E. the Sierra Nevada, and on the N. opened at our feet an immense chasm, from which, at the distance of four or five miles, we distinctly saw dense columns of steam rising. Descending, we discovered within half a mile square from 100 to 200 openings, whence issued dense columns of vapor, to the height of from 150 to 200 feet, accompanied by a roar which could be heard for a mile or more. Many acted spasmodically, throwing up jets of hot, scalding water to the height of 20 or 30 feet. Beneath your footsteps you hear the lashing and foaming gyrations; and on cutting through the surface, are disclosed streams of angry, boiling water.'

Near Vallecita, on Cayote creek, in Calaveras county, is a striking display of volcanic action, in the shape of what are called the natural bridges: two immense arches, thrown over the above-named creek, and covered with imitations of clusters of fruits and flowers, doubtless formed when the mass was first upheaved in a molten state. In the same vicinity is 'Cayote Cave,' a deep, semicircular chasm, entered by a perpendicular descent of 100 feet, and then proceeding by a gradual slope till it reaches a depth of nearly 200 feet below the surface, where you come to a chamber called "The Cathedral," from its containing two stones resembling bells, which, when struck, produce a chiming sound. Proceeding 100 feet farther, always on the descent, a lake is reached of great depth, and apparently covering many acres; but the exploration has not yet been carried beyond this point. The roof of the cave is studded with stalactites, assuming various fantastic forms."

Benecia is 30 miles from San Francisco, on the Straits of Carquinez. Vessels of the largest class can reach this point, and here the steamers of the Pacific Mail Steamship Line are refitted. *Vallejo* is a few miles nearer San Francisco, on the north side of the same straits. *Benecia*, *Vallejo* and *San Jose* have been by turns the seat of government of California. *San Jose* is at the head of the San Francisco Bay, some 50 miles from San Francisco. It is at the entrance of a most beautiful and fertile valley, and was long the headquarters of the native Californians, many of whom owned immense estates and herds of wild cattle. The celebrated *New Almaden* quick-silver mine is 12 miles south of the town.

On the Pacific coast, south of San Francisco, the first important place is *Monterey*, 90 miles distant. It was, under Mexican rule, the principal commercial point in, and capital of California. Next in order on the coast are *Santa Barbara*, *Los Angeles* and *San Diego*, the latter 490 miles from San Francisco, the southernmost port in the state, and the termination of the branch from Texas of the overland mail route. In the rear of *Los Angeles*, at the distance of 80 miles inland, the snow-capped peak of Mount St. Bernardino is seen. It marks the site of the beautiful valley in which is the Mormon settlement of Bernardino.

On the Pacific coast, north of San Francisco, the points of interest are *Humboldt City*, *Trinidad*, *Klamath*, and *Crescent City*. The latter is the sea-port of the south part of Oregon, being distant only a few miles from the southern boundary line of that state.

Fort Yuma is at the south-eastern angle of the state, at the junction of the Colorado and Gila Rivers. It was built about the year 1851, by Major S. P. Heintzelman, U.S.A.

NEVADA.

NEVADA was formed into a territory in February, 1861, and was taken from Western Utah. It was admitted into the Union as a State in October, 1864. Estimated area eighty thousand square miles. The eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada mountains, inclusive of the famous Carson Valley, is within it. Originally it was called Washoe, from Mt. Washoe, a peak over nine thousand feet high, in the vicinity of Virginia City.

Lying along the eastern slopes of the Sierra Nevada range, the country has a very different climate from that of California. "The gigantic wall of the Sierra Nevada, on the California side, receives the hot winds that blow from the Pacific Ocean, and fall there in rain and snow, leaving the opposite or eastern declivity exposed to droughts and freezing blasts. Consequently you may find, at the same time, in the same latitude, and at the same height, mildness of climate, fertility, vegetable riches, in fact, summer rejoicing on one side, while sterility, cold and winter exist, with more or less intensity, on the opposite slope of these mountains, whose sublime beauty is perhaps unequalled throughout the world."

With the exception of Carson valley and a few small valleys, the whole country for hundreds of miles, north, south and east, is, like most mineral regions, a barren desert, and of no value but for its minerals. There is a great scarcity of wood and water. Aside from the timber on the slope of the Sierra Nevada range, the only wood of the country is a species of scrub pine, fit only for fuel and to feed the Pi-Ute Indians, for it bears very nutritious nuts, which constitutes their principal staple article of food. This nut pine makes excellent fuel for steam works, being exceedingly hard and full of pitch. The whole face of the country is mostly covered with sage brush, like garden sage. Greasewood, another shrub, is also common.

Carson Valley was pronounced by Mr. Greeley, who was here in 1859, as one of the most beautiful he had ever seen. He said:

This valley, originally a grand meadow, the home of the deer and the antelope, is nearly inclosed by high mountains, down which, especially from the north and west, come innumerable rivulets, leaping and dancing on their way to join the Carson. Easily arrested and controlled, because of the extreme shallowness of their beds, these streams have been made to irrigate a large portion of the upper valley, producing an abundance of the sweetest grass, and insuring bounteous harvests also of vegetables, barley, oats, etc. Wheat seems to do fairly here; corn

not so well; in fact, the nights are too cold for it if the water were not. For this spring water, leaping suddenly down from its mountain sources, is too cold, too pure, to be well adapted to irrigation; could it be held back even a week, and exposed in shallow ponds or basins to the hot sunshine, it would be vastly more useful. When the whole river shall have been made available, twenty to forty miles below, it will prove far more nutritious and fertilizing.

If the new gold mines in this valley shall ultimately justify their present promise, a very large demand for vegetable food will speedily spring up, here, which can only be satisfied by domestic production. The vast deserts eastward can not meet it, the arable region about Salt Lake is at once too restricted and too distant; inland California is a dear country, and the transportation of bulky staples over the Sierra a costly operation. The time will ultimately come—it may or may not be in our day—when two or three great dams over the Carson will render the irrigation of these broad, arid plains on its banks perfectly feasible; and then this will be one of the most productive regions on earth. The vegetable food of one million people can easily be grown here, while their cattle may be reared and fed in the mountain vales north and south of this valley. And when the best works shall have been constructed, and all the lights of science and experience brought to bear on the subject, it will be found that nearly everything that contributes to human or brute sustenance can be grown actually cheaper by the aid of irrigation than without it. As yet we know little or nothing of the application of water to land and crops, and our ignorance causes deplorable waste and blundering. Every year henceforth will make us wiser on this head.

Previous to the discovery of the Washoe silver mines, in the summer of 1859, there were not one thousand white inhabitants in all of Nevada. Virginia City at once sprung up at that point, which is about two hundred miles easterly, in an air line from San Francisco. The circumstances, as told of its discovery, are somewhat romantic:

"The Washoe silver mines were first discovered by Mr. Patrick McLaughlin, an 'honest miner,' who was working for gold in a gulch or ravine, and where he was making \$100 a day to the hand. As he and his companions followed up the gulch, it paid even better, until, on arriving at a certain point, it gave out altogether, and they struck a vein of pure sulphuret of silver, which they at first supposed to be coal, but observing that it was very heavy, they concluded it must be valuable, and sent one of their number to San Francisco with some of the black ore to ascertain its value. It was given to a Mr. Killaley, an old Mexican miner, to assay. Killaley took the ore home and assayed it. The result was so astounding that the old man got terribly excited. The next morning poor Killaley was found dead in his bed. He had long been in bad health, and the excitement killed him.

Immediate search was made for the original deposit, which resulted in the since famous Comstock lode. Where first found, this lode has no outcropping or other indication to denote its presence. The first assay of the rock taken from the lode when first struck gave a return of \$265 of gold and silver, there being a larger proportion of gold than silver. Subsequent assays of ore taken from the vein, as it was sunk upon, showed a rapid increase in richness, until the enormous return was made of \$7,000 to the ton—\$4,000 in gold and \$3,000 in silver. Still later assays of choice pieces of ore have given a return of \$15,000 to the ton." In this case these ounce assays did not mislead, but a vast difference is to be observed between rich ore and a rich mine. A poor mine often yields specimens of rich ore, which, through the *ounce assay*, serves but to delude. The true test of the value of a silver mine is the *quantity* of the ore, and the average yield of the ore in *bulk* after the establishment of reduction works.

The changes that grew from this discovery almost vied in the wonderful with the transformations of Aladdin and his lamp. The next year Virginia City contained over one thousand houses, of brick, stone and cloth, and a population of four thousand. In 1864, Virginia City,

next to San Francisco, had become the largest and most important city on the Pacific coast, and Nevada was a State of the American Union, with an estimated population of sixty thousand. Her estimated mineral production that year was \$30,000,000. Her patriotism was illustrated by her sending to the Sanitary Commission *silver bricks* to the value of \$51,500. This she could afford, for a single one of her silver mines, the Gould & Curry, upon the Comstock lode, in 1864 produced \$5,000,000 in silver, and netted her stockholders the enormous amount of one million and four hundred and forty thousand dollars! A citizen, at the beginning of 1865, gives this glowing description of his town, which then contained a population of twenty-five thousand, American, Mexican, European and Chinamen:

Virginia City is situated on the eastern slope of Mount Davidson, the site being a sort of shelving tract of table-land, is six thousand two hundred and five feet above the level of sea, being among the highest cities on the globe. When a stranger arrives in Virginia City, and observes a city containing a population of twenty-five thousand people of both sexes, long blocks and squares of brick and granite structures with whole ranges of frame buildings, and ascertains further that immense sums are daily being paid for real estate, he naturally wonders whether growth in this ratio is likely to continue, and if so, whether the mines of Nevada will be sufficient ultimately to pay for it all. But if he steps into the leading banking houses in the city, and takes a view of the silver "bricks" generally to be seen there, he begins to imagine there is something tangible in Washoe after all. And if he will next ascertain how many quartz-mills are running in the vicinity of Virginia City, Gold Hill and Silver City, and how much bullion each returns on an average weekly, he will unquestionably be led to the conclusion—which others have come to before him—that the rapid growth of Virginia City is only the outward evidence of a profitable development of the mines.

The streets are Macadamized, well lit with gas, water introduced through pipes, and it boasts of three theaters, devoted to dramatic entertainments, an opera-house, which seats in its auditorium some two thousand people, and where Italian and other operas of the best composers are produced by artists equal to any which appear before the audiences of much older communities. The large amount of wealth which the earth so bountifully produces enables the population of the State to provide themselves with every comfort and luxury of civilized life. Stores of every character, well supplied with merchandise of all descriptions, hotels, and fine market-houses, filled with an abundance of game, meats and vegetables, attract the eye on every side. The churches of various denominations, and school-houses, attended daily by nearly a thousand children, will compare favorably with those in the Atlantic States. An excellent volunteer fire department, police force, and the working of a good municipal government, are no less attractive features of the new city which has so suddenly sprung into existence within the short space of five years. The country around is cut up with mines, mills, farms and gardens, while in every section the topography is dotted with smiling villages, and even palatial private residences give unmistakable indications of the thrift and wonderful enterprise of its hardy and industrious population. There

has been no difficulty as yet experienced in obtaining labor for mining operations. The supply is fully equal to the demand at any and all times. Good mining hands receive usually four dollars per diem, while the tariff of prices for ordinary laboring men is fixed at from three to three and a half dollars per day, payable in gold; amalgamators and engineers of mills receive from five to eight dollars. Wood for milling and hoisting purposes is worth twelve dollars, in summer, a cord, and fifteen in winter. Lumber for "timbering," and "shoring" up mines, and building purposes, may be obtained at from forty to fifty dollars per thousand feet, in any quantity that may be desired for all practical purposes. Fresh meats of the best quality can be had from twelve to eighteen cents a pound; butter, milk, eggs, cheese and fruits and vegetables of all kinds raised in the State, are as reasonable in price as the same may be procured in the city of New York on a specie-paying basis.

The elevation of Virginia City, on the east slope of Mount Davidson, is about six thousand feet above the level of the sea. There are no extremes of heat or cold experienced at any season of the year; but for the reason that the air at this elevation becomes rarefied, many people at first find some difficulty in breathing as freely as they could in a lower atmosphere. Persons afflicted with asthmatic and lung complaints find great relief in inhaling the rarefied air of Mount Davidson. In the valleys, however, where the temperature of the atmosphere is more moderate, the objections raised by some to the former locality for a place of residence is entirely overcome. The best test of the general healthiness of the climate is to be found in the fact that there are few deaths in proportion to the population, and that the climate does not impair the energy of settlers, is proved by the enterprise and activity which in Virginia City is evident on all sides, and in the rosy, blooming complexions of the people we meet on every hand.

A late visitor in Nevada gives us a picture of the appearance of things in Virginia City and the adjacent silver-producing towns which he approached from California, passing through Carson City:

Carson City, in 1858, was a place where the emigrant from the Eastern States, on the road to California, stopped to recruit himself and cattle for a start over the Sierra Nevada. Carson City of 1864 is quite a large and important place. It has a large trade with all parts of the State, has the finest site for a town in the whole territory, and is at present the capital. A large quarry of stone having been discovered by Abraham Curry, the place now boasts of splendid stores, court-houses and dwellings, built of this stone; fine hotels, family mansions, beautiful cottages, and, indeed, a place for Nevada to be proud of. It stands four thousand six hundred and fifteen feet above the level of the sea, has a fine climate, and the best water of any place in Nevada.

Let us jog on toward Virginia City, seventeen miles distant. We first reach Curry's warm spring, two miles east from the town. This is a great resort for drinking the water and bathing; it possesses great medicinal qualities. Here is the great territorial prison, an immense stone edifice. It was built for strength, although only for Curry's own house. The prisoners work in the quarry, which is in the yard adjoining. A railroad connects the prison with Carson City, for the conveyance of the stone.

We now start for Empire City (or Dutch Nicks), called after an old settler in 1860. It originally contained but two houses; now fine mills are erected for sawing lumber and crushing quartz—the Mexican mill, a most extensive affair, grind-

ing the rock from their claim in Virginia City. Here you hear, for the first time in the Territory, the ponderous stamps going day and night. Teams are going continually to the mine for rock to be crushed and the precious metals extracted. The Winters, Aitchenson and Mead mills, and others, are here, and it is now quite a place of importance; it is situated on Carson river, north-east from Curry's. In a northerly direction, you pass over a fine road, to the half-way house toward Silver City, through Spring Valley, and begin to ascend what is called the backbone of the range, on which the Comstock lode is found. A fine road has been finished all the way. You pass by the Daney Company's lode, and continue along till you come to the Canon, on which road we will pass the mills at work—Gold Canon being the one that drains Silver City, American Flat and Gold Hill. The Canon is full of mills, crushing the quartz from all the above places. The great want here is water; but that is being supplied in greater abundance, as the Gold Hill and Virginia Tunnel Company drain the mines. On it is located Silver City, about half way between Virginia City and Dayton, on the Carson river. Silver City is almost entirely dependent on the surrounding country for her support. Some of the finest mills in the country lie within her limits. Having a great abundance of granite and other building material, fine blocks of buildings have been erected, fire-proof, and very substantial; the private residences are tasty, and many are adorned by both fruit and shade trees. All along the Canon, to Devil's Gate, are mills at work on quartz from the various districts around. French's mill, situate in American Ravine, in Silver City, was built in 1860—size of building, ninety by seventy-five feet. It has twenty stamps and sixteen pans, with an engine of sixty-horse power, and reduces twenty to thirty tons of rock per day. There are a great many mills in this vicinity doing well, and a hundred others could have plenty of employment. To a person who never saw a quartz mill at work, he can have no idea of the noise and clatter it makes; the deafening sound, compelling great exertion to be heard; and I assure you a person needs all his breath here, for the rarefied air makes breathing pretty difficult.

Well, save your breath, and let us walk on to American City—American Flat—a flourishing place, only a few months old, boasting of churches and hotels. Residences have been erected as if by magic. Among the hills, west of American Flat, there is a beautiful cave of alabaster, from the roof of which, when first discovered, hung long pendent stalactites of snowy whiteness and rare beauty, which visitors have, from time to time carried away. The alabaster in this cave is so soft that it can be cut with a pen-knife.

A short time ago it was predicted that the improvements would be such in this region, that there would be a street lined with buildings for a distance of nearly eight miles. There is now no complete or dividing space between Virginia and Gold Hill, American and Silver City; and the rapidity with which the intervening spaces have been built up is truly astonishing. These facts are remarkably strong in support of the opinion that the time is not far distant when the main street of Virginia City will present a continuous double row of buildings from the north end of the city to Dayton. The next place we reach is Gold Hill in the Canon.

Gold Hill is emphatically a mining town. The ground underneath Virginia City is honey-combed by tunnels, drifts and excavations, which extend in every direction. But still there is little to be seen above the surface to give a stranger any idea of what is going on below. The streets and houses present the same appearance as the streets and houses of any other city, and it is only in a few localities in the outskirts of the town, as in the vicinity of the Ophir or Mexican lodes, that evidences of mining, carried on to any great extent, are to be seen.

But Gold Hill presents a far different aspect. All along the east side of the town huge piles of dirt, debris and pulverized quartz are visible, which have been raised out of the mines and left upon the ground, while the more valuable rock has been taken to the mill for crushing. In the hoisting-houses erected over the shafts, machinery is in constant operation night and day, the screaming of steam whistles is heard, and successive car-loads of ore are run over railroads upon trestle-work, and sent down long, narrow shuttles into wagons below, with a noise perfectly deafening. Leaving there, and passing through the town, the ears of the visitor are everywhere assailed by the thunder of stamps crushing in the

mills, and the clatter of machinery, until one would fain believe himself in a large manufacturing village in the New England States. The quartz teams you see in Virginia City have tripled in number, and in places the streets are jammed with them, carrying loads of rich ore to the mills at Devil's Gate, Silver City and Carson River. As night draws on, and a shift of hands takes place, the workmen, who, for a number of hours, have been many hundred feet under ground, timbering up drifts, or tearing down masses of glittering quartz, which compose the ledge, appear, and their conversation is utterly unintelligible to a stranger unacquainted with the locality and condition of the different claims. Remarks concerning the Sandy Bowers, the Pluto, Uncle Sam, or Bullion, are Chinese to him; and he learns their position and character as he would acquire a knowledge of the streets and buildings of a strange city. If Gold Hill presents a singular aspect in the day-time, its appearance from the Divide at midnight is absolutely startling. Work at the mines, in the hoisting-houses and quartz-mills, is carried on without intermission or cessation; and the flashing of lights, the noise of steam engines and machinery, contrasted with the silence and gloom of the surrounding mountains, make up a strange and almost unearthly picture, and puts him in mind of what he has read of the residence of the "Gentleman in Black."

The mines in Gold Hill proper are said to be very rich. We visited some of them, and were surprised at the extent of the work done. Everything here looks as if fortunes had been spent, but the rich returns have warranted the outlay. Here we found banking-houses, refiners, assayers, and every business connected with mining; every one attending to his own business. We will now go up the Divide, between Gold Hill and Virginia City.

Virginia City, as you see it, coming over the Divide, has a strange look, and you are quite startled at the view before you. 'You are at once astonished at the size and importance of the City of the Hills, a place but of yesterday; now second only to San Francisco on the Pacific coast.

Virginia City only differs from the towns you have passed through, because it is so much larger. It is built at the foot, or rather on the side, of Mount Davidson. All the principal mines are inside the city limits. The Gould & Cutry tunnel is in the very center of the city (see Evans' Map of Virginia City Mines), although its mill is two miles away. The city, which lies on the side of Mount Davidson, is one mass of excavations and tunnels. There is a bluish earth, which is obtained from the mines, and this is dumped at the mouth of the tunnels, so that the city, at a distance, seems speckled with these blue spots. The city boasts of fine buildings, stores filled with every luxury—everything that can be procured for money. Day and night the mills are crushing the ore, making a deafening noise. The silver bricks are carted around, as the people of the East do ordinary bricks, literally speaking.

The Comstock Range, in which the fine veins above described are situated, is the most noted of the silver regions of Nevada, from having been the earliest discovered and developed. But Nevada has other districts equally rich, and every day adds to our knowledge of the gigantic wealth hidden in the mineral regions of the Pacific slope. Beside gold and silver, coal, quicksilver, iron, copper, lead, antimony and every known mineral abound. Wealth enough exists to sponge out our huge national debt scores of times. The policy of the Government in the past, in withholding from the people titles in fee simple to her gold and silver bearing districts, has been a great incubus upon their development. When this policy is reversed, and the enterprising emigrant can locate his discovery with the same assurance of ownership as the pioneer on a prairie farm of the Mississippi valley, the development of the Pacific country will be rapid beyond all calculation. In relation to silver mining, however, it can only be carried on by companies, the original outlay for the reduction of ore, in

buildings and machinery, surpassing ordinary individual wealth. The adage is here in full force, that "it takes a mine to work a mine." A late writer gives these facts in regard to silver veins:

Silver is generally found in veins, and hence the deposits are far more likely to be inexhaustible than *placer* gold. The statistics of silver mining, in different countries, clearly establish this fact. For centuries this business has been the cardinal interest of Mexico; silver the circulating medium or currency of the country; and—in coin and bars—a chief article of export. Since the conquest of Cortez, the mining interest has been so successfully prosecuted that the most trustworthy statistics nearly startle us with suggestions of almost fabulous fortunes realized, and with vague conceptions of the vast mineral wealth of that country. According to Humboldt, the total amount of silver obtained from the conquest to the time he wrote (1803), was \$2,027,952,000. Other authorities represent the sum as much larger, and amounting to no less than \$12,000,000,000. And yet the whole period, since the conquest of 1521—nearly three hundred and fifty years—has developed no sign of the possible failure of the silver mines of Mexico. On the contrary, they were never richer than they are to-day. The annual coinage of the mints of Mexico, at the beginning of the present century, was not less than \$27,000,000. Our statistics for some years past have been less complete and trustworthy. When a vein of silver is found, it may generally be traced a long distance. The *Vela Madre*, said to be the richest vein in Mexico, has been opened at different points along the strata a distance of twelve miles, and in many places it is not less than 200 feet wide. One vein in Chili has been followed nearly one hundred miles, while several of the branches radiating from it are thirty miles long. When a silver vein is sometimes broken abruptly, as in the mines of Chili, it is quite sure to be found again, if the miner patiently pursues the same general direction. In one instance, at the mines of Chanarcillo, the vein was found to be thus interrupted by a belt of limestone; but by sinking a shaft over two hundred and fifty feet through the stone, the vein was struck again. Not less than seven of these belts have been found to interrupt the same mineral vein, at different points, and yet the miners have failed of reaching its final termination. The fact that silver is generally thus deposited while gold is not, must suggest to the most thoughtless observer, that of the two, silver mines are far more likely to be permanently profitable.

We now abridge from a published account a description of some of the other prominent mining districts of Nevada, as they were early in 1865:

The *Esmeralda* District is one hundred and forty miles south-east of Virginia City. Many good mines are in the district, and ten mills in operation for the reduction of the ores. A large amount of silver bullion is weekly shipped from Aurora, the principal town, which has four thousand people, and two daily papers.

The *Reese River* District is one hundred and eighty miles east of Virginia City, on the overland stage route. Austin, the principal town, has five thousand inhabitants. Nine mills are in operation, and a daily newspaper published. The mines of this region extend as far south as prospectors have ever ventured to explore—some two hundred miles. Some veins, very rich on the surface, have been found outside of the settlements in various directions, but as yet they have not been improved, the owners being poor men, and the country being too wild for capitalists, to venture into, while perhaps equally good opportunities for investment are to be found in more civilized localities. These ores are mostly chlorides, sulfides and bromides, while in the Comstock veins the principal are the black and grey sulphurets.

The Humboldt District is situated about one hundred and fifty miles north-east of Virginia City, on the east side of the Humboldt river, and near the Old Emigrant road, down that river. The mines were first discovered in 1860, but did not attract much attention until a year or two afterward. There are four or five

large towns in this region, and one or two mills in operation. Wood is very scarce, and for this reason few steam mills have been erected. A canal, sixty-five miles in length, and capable of carrying water sufficient to run forty or fifty water mills, is now nearly half completed. As soon as this great work is finished, a number of large mills will at once be erected. The principal mine in this region is the Sheba, which yields large quantities of very rich ore, much of which is sent to England for reduction. This is the oldest and best developed claim in that region, but there are doubtless hundreds equally as good, were they as thoroughly opened. An excellent weekly paper is published here, at Unionville, and there are some very heavy tunneling enterprises undertaken for the development of the veins found in certain mountains. The ores of this district are different from those of either Esmeralda or Reese river, being argentiferous, galena and antimonial ores. Some of the leads of this region are very rich in gold, but in this they are not peculiar, as more or less gold is found in every mining district, and in nearly all paying veins. It has been said that the Humboldt mountains alone doubtless contain precious metals sufficient to purchase the fee simple of all the rebel States, with the Union and rebel government debt both thrown in.

In this direction are several new mining districts. The most promising of these are Pine Wood, Mountain Wells and Clan Alpine. Judging from assays obtained from rock taken from the croppings of some of these veins, there is no doubt but they will prove immensely valuable. The district is situated between Humboldt and the Reese river mines, is well watered, and the hills are clothed with a heavy growth of nut pine. Clan Alpine is quite a new district, there being but a dozen or two of miners there, but it contains some most promising veins. The district is about one hundred and thirty miles east of Virginia City. Mountain Wells district, some eighty miles east of Virginia City, is another promising, though but little developed, mining region. Some excellent veins have been opened, and quite a village is springing up in the mines. As yet they have no mills. There is plenty of wood and water in the district. It is situated on the overland mail route.

No region in the world can surpass Nevada in the abundance and variety of her mineral productions. Almost everywhere in the State iron ore, of an excellent quality, is abundant, much of it so pure that when broken it presents the appearance of cast iron. Two or three deposits of coal have lately been discovered, the beds being from nine to twenty feet thick. It burns well, and will doubtless prove to be of an excellent quality when the workings are carried to a proper depth on the veins. Lead is found in abundance in many parts of the Territory; also large veins of antimony, the ore of which is exceedingly pure. None of these are worked unless found to contain silver in paying quantities. Large and very rich veins of copper are found in almost every part of the country, but no attention is paid to them, except they contain silver. The copper ores are of various kinds; the rich black ore as heavy as lead; the blue and green carbonates, and other varieties; also some veins in which native copper is visible in the rock above the surface of the ground, running in fibers through the vein stone.

In Peavine District, about eighteen miles north-west of Virginia City, and near the Truckee river, also quite near the line of the Central Pacific Railroad, are many splendid veins of copper. These veins often show beautiful specimens of pure gold, and also contain a considerable per cent. of silver. The ores of many of these veins contain a sufficient amount of gold to pay for shipping and working, could it easily be separated from the copper. There are in the State numerous large beds of plumbago. None of these are claimed or worked, though some parties at one time tried to manufacture fire-proof bricks from this material, but fire-clay of good quality being discovered, the plumbago was abandoned. Some seventy miles east of Virginia City, in the deserts, are immense fields of excellent salt, much of it being equal to the best table salt. As salt is much used by the mills in the various processes for the reduction of silver ores, hundreds of tons of this salt are brought to Virginia City, being hauled on wagons or packed on the backs of mules. In the vicinity of the Humboldt mines is a whole mountain of brinstone, and in the same vicinity are found extensive beds of pure

alum. Carbonate of soda is found everywhere in the alkaline deserts in great quantities, also many other curious mineral productions.

In other countries rivers generally empty into seas, the ocean, or other rivers, but this is not the case with the Nevada rivers. Nevada rivers start off and run till they get tired, then quit and go into the ground. Carson river rises in the Sierras, runs off east, and disappears in what is known as Carson Sink. The Truckee rises in the Sierras, runs eastward, and sinks in Pyramid Lake. The Humboldt comes from the east, and disappears at Humboldt Sink and Walker River sinks in Walker Lake. None of these sinks or lakes have any visible outlet. What becomes of the waters of these rivers would be about as hard to say as to tell where a candle goes to when it goes out.

An old miner living there, used to swear that here was where the work of the creation was finished. He said that "late on Saturday evening the Almighty started in to make a tremendous great river. He made the four rivers now in Washoe as the four branches thereof, and was leading them along, intending to bring them together in one mighty river, which was to empty into the ocean; but of a sudden, before He got the branches together, night came on, and the Lord just stuck the ends into the ground and quit, and they have stayed so ever since."

We conclude this article with an extract from a valuable and instructive paper in *Gazley's Pacific Monthly* for March, 1865, upon the gold and silver mines of California and Nevada:

When the first "fever" broke out in California, placer-digging was the haven where all were bound, and here, with a pan or rocker as the only "machinery," millions per month of the precious treasure were gathered. No one dreamed of descending into the bowels of the earth by shaft or tunnel; no one imagined that gold must have a matrix, or be imbedded in rock, or could be traced in the quartz, in which it was afterward discovered to have come from.

As the placer-digging gradually gave out, adventurous spirits began to inquire for "a cause" and "a wherefore," and on finding on the mountain-sides boulders containing streaks of gold, an immediate conclusion was formed that the yellow beauty must have a mother, and that quartz must be the womb. Happy thought! Quartz-mining superseded the placer-digging, and in every part of the State a new era dawned. Quartz became king. The mighty attractions of the placer-digging a short while ago were forgotten. And here, parenthetically, I would observe, that though placer-mining has lost interest to a great extent, there are many who will agree with me in saying, that these diggings are yet valuable, and that the ore has only to be looked for, and it may be found in large quantities and as rich as any before worked.

Gold quartz was the only one known at this time, and in some sections was found extremely rich. The Allison Ranch, in Grass Valley, California, for instance, has ledges which might, perhaps, be classed with any mine in the world for richness. Indeed, ledges have been found all over the State, which have yielded to the fortunate possessors gigantic fortunes.

This excitement had its day, and new fields promising greater results were sought. Miners, as a class, especially those of California, are impatient and too eager. They wander, explore, and run from one place to another. Kern River had its attractions, and off they went helter-skelter. Gold River and Frazer River carried them off by thousands, to the old tune of follow your leader, and come back bootless. Broken in health and penniless, back they came to placer-digging, where many made their "piles" out of the very claims that they had, a little while before, given up as worthless.

And now broke out the Washoe silver-mining mania, and the same results followed as at first. Many returned to placer-digging, in California, again tired and weary of life and everything under the sun. But Washoe had a glorious destiny awaiting her. She burst with a blaze of glory upon the world; mines richer than the famous mines of Peru were found, and the now State of Nevada, the youngest of the sisterhood of States, has taken her rank as the first silver-mining region in the world.

Virginia City now rears her lofty chimneys high to the clouds, from mills that are daily turning her very foundations into bricks of silver and gold, under the protection of Mount Davidson, nine thousand feet above the level of the sea. Few cities of the Pacific States rank higher, either for the production of wealth or moral advancement, than she does at the present moment. And her destiny is onward! upward!

To attempt to give the amount taken from the soil of Nevada would be an utter impossibility, as most of it is taken to other places by private hands, and never reaches the Mint—from which we receive the data to make up our calculations. The coinage can give us no information, as most of the precious bricks of silver and gold leave San Francisco for India, China, Peru, England, France, and, I may say, every portion of the globe, without being counted as the production of Nevada.

Now, let us see what effect the wealth of California and Washoe will have on the monetary world. Financial calculations have, of late years, taken range and scope beyond the experience of former times. As commerce extends, as industry becomes more general, as the amount of wealth increases, and as the national debt becomes larger and more burdensome, the management of the currency is a serious question. The extraordinary production of gold, within the last few years, and the probable great increase of silver in the future, have set the financiers of the world to work to devise a method to govern and direct the change.

To find out what changes may be expected in the future, we must look back at those which have taken place in the past. We must compare our present stock of the precious metals with that which existed at previous epochs, and we must compare the present increase with that of previous ages.

The amount of gold and silver coin in the possession of civilized nations, in the year 1500, is estimated at \$250,000,000.

The mines of Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia produced an immense amount of silver during the century following, bringing up the amount stated to \$750,000,000. In 1700, the sum in Europe—making all allowances for wear and shipments to India—had risen to \$1,500,000,000. The production of gold and silver in America during the eighteenth century is estimated at \$350,000,000. There was, however, at the same time, a great export of silver to India, a considerable wear, amounting to twenty per cent.—in a century—and a great consumption of the precious metals in ornaments and table ware. At the commencement of the present century, the whole known amount of coin in the world was estimated at \$1,900,000,000. From 1800 till 1820, the annual production of the world was about \$25,000,000, and from 1820 to 1848, about \$40,000,000.

With the discovery of the gold mines of California, began a production large beyond all previous example, and almost beyond the conception of former times.

California and Australia each produced \$50,000,000 annually for some years and Russia produced \$20,000,000.

The present total production of the world may safely be put down at \$120,000,000 per annum, and the present total stock of coin in existence at \$4,000,000,000. The average annual export of silver to India and China amounts to about \$50,000,000. In 1857 it came up to \$96,000,000, while in 1864 it may safely be put down at \$120,000,000. Once exported, very little is ever returned to the circulation of Europe or America. While the precious metals were increasing in quantity, civilization was extending with great rapidity; and thus we see verified one of nature's great laws, that as earth's products develop an increase, so does civilization and enlightenment extend. Thus it is that precious metals have fallen to about one-eighth of the value which they possessed at the discovery of America.

The most important gold region of the United States—and perhaps of the world—is California; and the richest silver region in the world is Nevada. The development of both has added untold millions to the wealth of the world, and 1865 will, no doubt, add more millions than could be imagined by the most experienced calculator or political economist in Europe.

Gold and silver mines of great richness are found in the range or ranges from

the city of Mexico, through the Gila, Washoe, Oregon, Frazer River, to the Arctic Ocean; and as they are more explored and opened up, the northern portion will prove as rich as the southern, which astonished the world at former periods.

Since the discovery of the mines of California and Washoe, all the resources of modern science have been taxed to find out the best way of working, cheaply and thoroughly, the ores of the different ranges and formations. All the Pacific States abound in the precious metals held in quartz rock. The gold or silver-bearing quartz runs in veins through an entirely different rock, which forms walls on both sides as the vein is worked. When a vein, or what is called a ledge, is discovered, the discoverer becomes the possessor of so many feet, on which he can claim all its dips, spurs, angles, and as many feet on each side as the mining laws allow. He must do a certain amount of work to hold good his claim, as established by the laws of the district in which his claim is located. The recorder goes on the ground, and if all is correct, he issues his certificate (miners' laws are always respected in California and Nevada). The mines of Nevada have but recently attracted the attention of the capitalists of the world by their known richness, extent, and capability of being worked. The western range, on which the famed Comstock is located, has many other ledges equally rich on the same range of hills (for Virginia has hundreds of ledges situated on Mount Davidson and Ophir Hills), all of which have become famous to the world; and the eastern range or Reese River, with its ledges, richer than even the Comstock range, has proved to be full of mines, so rich, so extensive, that in a few years these mines will occupy, in the eye of the capitalist, a most important spot in which to invest his surplus capital.

The extraordinary developments of mineral deposits in the countries within the confines and limits of the ancient Alta California, form one of the grandest epochs in the annals of our race. These discoveries of the precious metals have not all been of recent date. In 1700 the rich mines of North Sinaloa were opened; in 1730 the *Planchas de Plata* of Arizona, or masses of native silver, were found. Then we had in 1770 the great placers of Cienacuilla, to the north of Hermosilla, where the immense chispa of seventy pounds was found, and sent to the cabinet of the King of Spain, and several millions were picked up in its vicinity in a few years. After this came the discoveries further north, on the rivers which flow into the Gila from the south, and also the headwaters of the Sonora River, and those of the Opasura and Yaqui, which interlock with the tributaries of the Gila in the country of the Opatas, Terahumaras, Yanos, and Apaches, and which, by spasmodic starts, yielded large quantities of gold. This section of the present Arizona, and as far up north as the Navajos, and east to the Comanche range, is known in Mexico as the *Apacharia*, of which the most apparently fabulous stories have been told, from 1770 to 1864, concerning the existence of immense mines and deposits of gold, silver, copper, and quicksilver, both in veins and pure metal, but which are every day proving the truth of the accounts of the old missionaries and Gambusinos.

After 1800, till 1846, discoveries were made in many places every few years, near all the old mission settlements of Sonora. In 1825 Captain Patie mentions that rich gold placers were worked near *Bacnachí*, not far south of Tucson, and the price of gold was only eleven and twelve dollars to the ounce. The account of Captain Patie, who died at San Diego, in 1829, is the first printed one we have of any American, or even other parties, who came by land to California through Sonora or New Mexico. He mentions several other places in the *Bacnachí*, or River San Pedro country, where gold was produced in abundance when the Apaches were out of the way. Again, from 1838 to 1846, the gold placers of San Fernando, near Los Angeles, are of public notoriety as yielding very handsome returns.

From 1848 to 1864 the discoveries of gold, silver, and copper have been constant and of every-day notoriety. The prospectors have ranged from the Gila, north to the Russian possessions, and from the Pacific Ocean to the interlocking branches of the Columbia, Missouri, Colorado, and Rio Grande del Norte. It has been of daily record for the last fifteen years that all this immense extent of coun-

try, gives to the world the knowledge of exhaustless millions of treasure, awaiting but the hand of labor to throw it into the channel of commerce, and the road to population and power.

Not a single precious metal or valuable mineral of trade or science but what is found in abundant out-crops, or washings, in all these States and Territories. A very singular and unlooked-for exhibition has been going on for the last few years. The explorers of Sonora, California and Nevada have been out on prospecting expeditions in the deserts, mountains, and ranges on the Pacific, while those of Pike's Peak and the Rocky Mountains, from the east, have been gradually extending their lines and distances till they now meet the mining parties from Oregon, Washington, and Nevada, in Cariboo, Idaho, and Utah. This magnificent mineral empire is the most wealthy and extended known to the world. It has an advantage superior to all other mineral fields, in being in the vicinity of sea navigation, and has a climate of unsurpassed salubrity. While in the neighborhood of most of our mineral deposits the soil is exceedingly fertile, inviting the husbandman to a rich return for his labor, and boundless pastures to the herdsman; and, it may be added, that within our metalliferous ranges, valleys exist of the most picturesque and beautiful character; views equaled by no country in Europe, will invite the pleasure-seeker to travel for health, recreation, or pleasure; and a few years will see the aristocracy of Europe thronging the shores of the Pacific, as they now do the Continent. The borders of Lake Tehoe or Bigler will be as famous as the Lake of Como, and the Sierra Nevada will be climbed by tourists as are the Alps of Switzerland. The Falls of Yo Semite will be a greater wonder than the Falls of Niagara, and the shores of the Bay of San Francisco will be dotted with princely palaces.

OREGON.

OREGON is one of the Pacific states. The name, *Oregon*, is from *Oregano*, the Spanish word for wild marjoram; and it is from this word, or some other

similar, that its name is supposed to have arisen. "But little was known of even its coast up to the latter part of the last century. Immediately after the last voyage of the renowned navigator, Capt. Cook, the immense quantities of sea-otter, beaver and other valuable furs to be obtained on the north-west coast of America, and the enormous prices which they would bring in China, was communicated to civilized nations, and created as much excitement as the discovery of a new gold region. Multitudes of people rushed at once into this lucrative traffic: so that in the year 1792, it is said that there were twenty-one vessels under different flags, but principally American, plying along the coast of Oregon, and trading with the natives.



ARMS OF OREGON,

Motto—*Alis volat propriis*—I fly with my own wing.

On the 7th of May, 1792, Capt. Robert Gray, of the ship *Columbia*, of Boston, discovered and entered the river, which he named from his vessel. He was, in reality, the first person who established the fact of the existence of this great river, and this gave to the United States the right to the country drained by its waters by the virtue of discovery. In 1804-'5, Lewis and Clark explored the country, from the mouth of the Missouri to that of the Columbia. This exploration of the Columbia, the first ever made, constituted another ground of the claim of the United States to the country.

In 1808, the Missouri Fur Company, through their agent, Mr. Henry, established a trading-post on Lewis River, a branch of the Columbia, which was the first establishment of civilized people in this section of country. An attempt was made that year, by Capt. Smith, of the *Albatross*, of Boston, to found a trading-post on the south bank of the Columbia, forty miles

from its mouth. It was abandoned the same season, and that of Mr. Henry in 1810.

In the year 1810, John Jacob Astor, a German merchant of New York, who had accumulated an immense fortune by commerce in the Pacific and China, formed the Pacific Fur Company. His first objects were to concentrate in the company, the fur trade in the unsettled parts of America, and also the supply of merchandise for the Russian fur-trading establishments in the North Pacific. For these purposes, posts were established on the Missouri, and the Columbia, and vicinity. These posts were to be supplied with the merchandise required for trading by ships from the Atlantic coast, or across the country by way of the Missouri. A factory or depot was to be founded on the Pacific, for receiving this merchandise, and distributing it to the different posts, and for receiving in turn furs from them, which were to be sent by ships from thence to Canton. Vessels were also to be sent from the United States to the factory with merchandise, to be traded for furs, which would then be sent to Canton, and there exchanged for teas, silks, etc., to be in turn distributed in Europe and America.

This stupendous enterprise at the time appeared practicable. The only party from whom any rivalry could be expected, was the British North-west Company, and their means were far inferior to those of Astor. From motives of policy, he offered them one third interest, which they declined, secretly intending to forestall him. Having matured his scheme, Mr. Astor engaged partners, clerks, and *voyageurs*, the majority of whom were Scotchmen and Canadians, previously in the service of the North-west Company. Wilson P. Hunt, of New Jersey, was chosen the chief agent of the operations in western America.

In September, 1810, the ship *Tonquin*, Capt. Thorn, left New York for the mouth of the Columbia, with four of the partners, McKay, McDougal, and David and Robert Stuart, all British subjects, with clerks, *voyageurs*, and mechanics. In January, 1811, the second detachment, with Hunt, McClellan, McKeuzie, and Crooks, also left New York to go overland by the Missouri to the same point, and in October, 1811, the ship *Beaver*, Capt. Sowles, with several clerks and attaches, left New York for the North Pacific. Prior to these, in 1809, Mr. Astor had dispatched the *Enterprise*, Capt. Ebberts, to make observations at the Russian settlements, and to prepare the way for settlements in Oregon. He also, in 1811, sent an agent to St. Petersburg, who obtained from the Russian American Fur Company, the monopoly of supplying their posts in the North Pacific with merchandise, and receiving furs in exchange.

In March, 1811, the *Tonquin* arrived at the Columbia, and soon after they commenced erecting on the south bank, a few miles inland, their factory or depot building; this place they named *Astoria*. In June, the *Tonquin*, with McKay sailed north to make arrangements for trading with the Russians. In July, the Astorians were surprised by the appearance of a party of the North-west Company, under Mr. Thompson, who had come overland from Canada, to forestall them in the occupation of the mouth of the Columbia; but had been delayed too late for this purpose, in seeking a passage through the Rocky Mountains, and had been obliged to winter there. Mr. Thompson was accompanied on his return by David Stuart, who founded the trading post called *Okonogan*.

In the beginning of the next year (1812), the detachment of Hunt came into Astoria, in parties, and in a wretched condition. They had been over a year in coming from St. Louis; had undergone extreme suffering from hunger, thirst, and cold, in their wanderings that winter, through the dreary wilderness of snow-clad mountains, from which, and other causes, numbers of them perished. In May, 1812, the *Beaver*, bringing the third detachment, under Mr. Clark, arrived in Astoria. They brought a letter which had been left at the Sandwich Islands by Capt. Ebberts, of the *Enterprise*, containing the sad intelligence that the *Tonquin* and her crew had been destroyed by the savages, near the Straits of Fuca, the June preceding.

In August, Mr. Hunt, leaving Astoria in the charge of McDougal, embarked in the *Beaver* to trade with the Russian posts, which was to have been done by the *Tonquin*. He was successful, and effected a highly advantageous arrangement at Sitka, with Baranof, governor of Russian America; took in a rich cargo of furs,

and dispatched the vessel to Canton, *via* the Sandwich Islands, where he, in person, remained, and in 1814, he returned to Astoria in the *Peddler*, which he had chartered, and found that Astoria was in the hands of the North-west Company.

When Hunt left in the *Beaver*, a party was dispatched, which established a trading post on the *Spokane*. Messrs. Crooks, McCellan, and Robert Stuart about this time, set out and crossed overland to New York, with an account of what had been done. The trade was in the meantime very prosperous, and a large quantity of furs had been collected at Astoria.

In January, 1813, the Astorians learned from a trading vessel that a war had broken out with England. A short time after, M'Tavish and Laroque, partners of the North-west Company, arrived at Astoria; M'Dougal and M'Kenzie (both Scotchmen) were the only partners there, and they unwisely agreed to dissolve the company in July. Messrs. Stuart and Clark, at the Okonogan and Spokane posts, both of which are within the limits of Washington Territory, opposed this; but it was finally agreed that if assistance did not soon arrive from the United States, they would abandon the enterprise.

M'Tavish and his followers, of the North-west Company, again visited Astoria, where they expected to meet the *Isaac Todd*, an armed ship from London, which had orders 'to take and destroy everything American on the north-west coast.' Notwithstanding, they were hospitably received, and held private conferences with M'Dougal and M'Kenzie, the result of which was, that they sold out the establishment, furs, etc., of the Pacific Company in the country, to the North-west Company, for about \$58,004. That company were thus enabled to establish themselves in the country.

Thus ended the Astoria enterprise. Had the directing partners on the *Columbia* been Americans instead of foreigners, it is believed that they would, notwithstanding the war, have withstood all their difficulties. The sale was considered disgraceful, and the conduct of M'Dougal and M'Kenzie in that sale and subsequently, were such as to authorize suspicions against their motives; yet they could not have been expected to engage in hostilities against their countrymen and old friends.

The name of Astoria was changed by the British to that of Fort George. From 1813 to 1823, few, if any, American citizens entered the countries west of the Rocky Mountains. Nearly all the trade of the Upper Mississippi and Missouri, was carried on by the Old North American Fur Company, of which Astor was the head; and by the *Columbia* Fur Company, formed in 1822, composed mainly of persons who had been in the service of the North-west Company, and were dissatisfied with it. The *Columbia* Company established posts on the upper waters of the Mississippi, the Missouri, and the Yellow Stone, which were transferred, in 1826, to the North American Company, on the junction of the two bodies. About this time, the overland trade with Santa Fe commenced, caravans passing regularly every summer between St. Louis and that place. In 1824, Ashley, of St. Louis, re-established commercial communications with the country west of the Rocky Mountains, and built a trading post on Ashley's Lake, in Utah.

These active proceedings of the Missouri fur traders, stimulated the North American Fur Company to send their agents and attaches beyond the Rocky Mountains, although they built no posts. In 1827, Mr. Pilcher, of Missouri, went through the South Pass with forty-five men, and wintered on the head-waters of the Colorado, in what is now the north-east part of Utah. The next year he proceeded northwardly, along the base of the Rocky Mountains, to near latitude 47 deg. There he remained until the spring of 1829, when he descended Clark River to Fort Colville, then recently established at the falls, by the Hudson's Bay Company, which had a few years previous absorbed and united the interests of the North-west Company. He returned to the United States, through the long and circuitous fur northward route of the Upper Columbia, the Athabasca, the Assinaboine, Red River, and the Upper Missouri. But little was known of the countries through which Pilcher traversed, previous to the publication of his concise narrative. The account of the rambles of J. O. Pattie, a Missouri fur trader, through New Mexico, Chihuahua, Sonora, and California, threw some light on the geography of those countries. In 1832, Capt. Bonneville, U.S.A., while on a furlough,

led a party of one hundred men from Missouri, over the mountains, where he passed more than two years on the Columbia and Colorado, in hunting, trapping, and trading.

About the same time, Captain Wyeth, of Massachusetts, attempted to establish commercial relations with the countries on the Columbia, to which the name of *Oregon* then began to be universally applied. His plan was like that of Astor, with the additional scheme of transporting the salmon of the Oregon rivers to the United States. He made two overland expeditions to Oregon, established *Fort Hall* as a trading post, and another mainly for fishing purposes, near the mouth of the Willamette. This scheme failed, owing to the rivalry of the Hudson's Bay Company, who founded the counter establishment of Fort Boise, where, offering goods to the Indians at lower prices than Wyeth could afford, compelled him to desist, and he sold out his interests to them. Meanwhile, a brig he had dispatched from Boston, arrived in the Columbia, and returned with a cargo of salted salmon, but the results not being auspicious, the enterprise was abandoned.

The American traders being excluded by these, and other means from Oregon, mainly confined themselves to the regions of the head waters of the Colorado and the Utah Lake, where they formed one or two small establishments, and sometimes extended their rambles as far west as San Francisco and Monterey. The number of American hunters and trappers thus employed west of the Rocky Mountains, seldom exceeded two hundred; where, during the greater part of the year, they roved through the wilds in search of furs which they conveyed to their places of rendezvous in the mountain valleys, and bartered with them to the Missouri traders.

About the time of Wyeth's expeditions, were the earliest emigrations to Oregon of settlers from the United States. The first of these was founded in 1834, in the Willamette Valley, by a body of Methodists who went round by sea under the direction of the Rev. Messrs. Lee and Shepherd. In that valley a few retired servants of the Hudson's Bay Company were then residing, and engaged in herding cattle. The Congregationalists or Presbyterians planted colonies two or three years after, in the Walla-walla and Spokane countries, with Messrs. Parker, Spaulding, Gray, Walker, Eels, Smith, and Whitman as missionaries.

In all of these places mission schools were established for the instruction of the natives, and in 1839, a printing press was started at Walla-walla (now in Washington Territory), where were printed the first sheets ever struck off, on the Pacific side of the mountains, north of Mexico. On it books were printed from types set by native compositors. The Roman Catholics from Missouri, soon after founded stations on Clark River.

About the year 1837, the American people began to be deeply interested in the subject of the claims of the United States to Oregon, and societies were formed for emigration. From them and other sources, petitions were presented to congress, to either make a definite arrangement with Great Britain, the other claimant, or take immediate possession of the country. In each year, from 1838 to 1843, small parties emigrated overland from Missouri to Oregon, suffering much hardship on the route. At the close of 1842, the American citizens there numbered about four hundred. Relying upon the promise of protection held out by the passage of the bill in February, 1843, by the U. S. senate for the immediate occupation of Oregon, about one thousand emigrants, men, women, and children, assembled at Westport, on the Missouri frontier, in the succeeding June, and followed the route up the Platte, and through the South Pass, surveyed the previous year by Fremont; thence by Fort Hall to the Willamette Valley, where they arrived in October, after a laborious and fatiguing journey of more than two thousand miles. Others soon followed, and before the close of the next year, over 3,000 American citizens were in Oregon.

By the treaty for the purchase of Florida, in 1819, the boundary between the Spanish possessions and the United States was fixed on the N.W., at lat. 42 degs., the present northern line of Utah and California; by this the United States succeeded to such title to Oregon as Spain may have derived by the right of discovery through its early navigators. In June, of 1846, all the difficulties in relation to Oregon, which at one time threatened war, were settled by treaty between the two

nations. In 1841, the coast of Oregon was visited by the ships of the United States Exploring Expedition, under Lieut. Charles Wilkes. At that time, Wilkes estimated the population to be: of Indians, 19,199; Canadians and half-breeds, 650; and the citizens of the United States, 150. The Hudson's Bay Company then had twenty-five forts and trading stations in Oregon."

Oregon was organized as a territory in 1848, and included in its boundaries the present Territory of Washington—an immense area of about 250,000 square miles, with an average width east and west of 540, and north and south of 470 miles. A state constitution was adopted in convention, Sept. 18, 1857, and ratified by the people on the 9th of November following. At the same time the question of admitting slaves and free negroes into the state was submitted to the people. The vote on these questions was: for slavery, 2,645; against slavery, 7,727; majority against, 5,082; for free negroes, 1,081; against free negroes, 8,640; majority against, 7,559. The constitution prohibited negroes, Chinamen, and mulattoes from voting; and persons concerned in dueling ineligible to offices of trust and profit. On the 14th of Feb., 1859, Oregon was admitted by congress as a state, and with greatly contracted boundaries. Its extreme extent in latitude is from 42° to 46° 12' N., in longitude from 116° 45' to 124° 30' W. from Greenwich. It has an average length, east and west, of about 350, and width, north and south, of 260 miles giving an area of about 90,000 square miles. The act of admission gives two sections of land in every township for the use of schools, grants 72 sections for a state university, and five per cent. of the net proceeds of the sales of the public lands for public roads and internal improvements within the state.

Oregon is bounded, north by Washington Territory, east by Idaho Territory, south by California and Nevada, and west by the Pacific Ocean. It is divided into three sections. The *first*, or western section is that between the Pacific Ocean and the Cascade range of mountains. This range runs parallel with the sea coast the whole length of the state, and is continued through California, under the name of the Sierra Nevada. The *second*, or middle section, is that between the Cascade and Blue Mountains: it comprises nearly half the state: the surface is about 1,000 feet above the western section. It is generally a high rolling prairie country, destitute of timber, and but a small part of it adapted to farming. The *third*, or eastern section, lies south and east of the Blue Mountains: it is mostly a rocky and barren waste. The Columbia is the great river of the state, nearly all others being its tributaries. It is navigable from the ocean 120 miles, for vessels of 12 feet draught: from thence its course is obstructed by falls and rapids, which will eventually be overcome by locks and canals. During freshets, it is in many places confined by *dalles*, *i. e.* narrows, which back the water, covering the islands and tracts of low prairie, giving the appearance of lakes. The Dalles of the Columbia, 94 miles below the mouth of Lewis Fork, is a noted place, where the river passes between vast masses of rock.

The settled part of Oregon, and the only portion likely to possess much interest for years to come, is the first or western section, lying between the Cascade Mountains and the Pacific—a strip of country 280 long, north and south, and 120 miles broad, east and west. A writer familiar with it gives this description:

Western Oregon, between the Cascades and the Pacific, is made up chiefly of three valleys, those of the Willamette (pronounced Willam'-ette), Umpqua and Rogue Rivers. The first named stream begins in the Cascade Mountains, runs west 60 miles, then turns northward, runs 140 miles, and empties into the Colum-

bia. The last two begin in the Cascades, and run westward to the ocean. There are, perhaps, several thousand miners including Chinamen, in the Rogue River valley; but nearly the whole permanent farming population is in the Valley of the Willamette. This valley, taking the word in its more restricted sense of the low land, is from 30 to 40 miles wide and 120 miles long. This may be said to be the



View in the Valley of the Willamette.

whole of agricultural Oregon. It is a beautiful, fertile, well-watered plain, with a little timber along the streams, and a great deal in the mountains on each side. The soil is a gravelly clay, covered near the creeks and rivers with a rich sandy loam. The vegetation of the valley is composed of several indigenous grasses, a number of flowering plants and ferns, the latter being very abundant, and exceedingly troublesome to the farmer on account of its extremely tough vitality.

The tributary streams of the Willamette are very numerous, and their course in the valley is usually crooked, as the main stream itself is, having many "sloughs," "bayous," or "arms," as they are differently called. In some places the land is marshy, and everywhere moist. Drouth will never be known in western Oregon; its climate is very wet, both summer and winter, the latter season being one long rain, and the former consisting of many short ones, with a little sunshine intervening. The winters are warm, and the summers rather cool—too cool for growing melons, maize and sweet potatoes. Wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and domestic animals thrive well. The climate, take it all in all, is much like that of England, and all plants and animals which do well in Britain will prosper in Oregon. The Oregon fruit is excellent, particularly the apples and plums; the peaches and pears are not quite so good as those of California.

All along the coast of Oregon, there is a range of mountains about forty miles wide, and they are so densely timbered with cedar, pine, spruce and fir, that the density of the wood alone would render them worthless for an age, if they were not rugged. But they are very rugged, and the Umpqua and Rogue Rivers, in making their way through them, have not been able to get any bottom lands, and are limited to narrow, high-walled canons. The only tillable lands on the banks of those rivers are about fifty miles from the sea, each having a valley which, in general terms, may be described as twelve miles wide by thirty long. Rogue River valley is separated from California by the Siskiyou Mountains, about 5,000 feet high, and from Umpqua valley by the Canon Mountains, about 3,000 feet high; and

The Umpqua again is separated from the Willamette valley by the Calapooya Mountains, also about 3,000 feet high.

All Oregon—that is, its western division, except the low lands of the Willamette, Umpqua and Rogue valleys—is covered with dense timber, chiefly of coarse grained wood—such as fir, spruce and hemlock. In the south-western corner of the state, however, there are considerable forests of white cedar—a large and beautiful tree, producing a soft, fine-grained lumber, and very fragrant with a perfume, which might be imitated by mixing otto of roses with turpentine. Oak and ash are rare. Nearly all the trees are coniferous.



Giant Pines of Oregon.

In Rogue valley and along the beach of the Pacific there are extensive gold diggings. There are also large seams of tertiary coal at Coose Bay. These are the only valuable minerals in the state. The scenery on the Columbia is grand, from Walla-walla, where it first touches Oregon, to the ocean. There are five mountain peaks in the state, rising to the region of perpetual snow: Mount Hood, 13,700 feet high; Mount Jefferson, 11,900; the Three Sisters, Mount Scott, and Mount McLoughlin, all about 9,000 feet high.

The people are generally intelligent, industrious and moral. There are about a dozen newspapers published in Oregon, all of them weeklies. The chief exports are wheat, flour, apples, butter, cheese, salted salmon, salted meats, and coals, and from 10,000 to 20,000 head of horned cattle and sheep are annually driven to California.

Salmon are very abundant in the Columbia and its branches, and those taken at the mouth of the main stream are said to be the best on the coast. The fishing is done chiefly by Indians.

Such is a brief and a fair statement of the resources and condition of Oregon. It is made to convey a correct idea of the state—not to attract or deter emigration.

California has a clearer sky, a more agreeable climate, more extensive and richer deposits of valuable minerals, greater natural facilities for internal trade and external commerce, a greater variety of soil and climate, fitting it for the growth of the fig, the orange, the olive, and the date, as well as of the vine, apple, and wheat; but, on the other hand, has the disadvantages of scanty timber, very dry summers and autumns—compelling the farmer to irrigate his land—an unsettled population, a small proportion of families, an unsteady course of trade, and unsettled titles to most of the soil under occupation. Washington Territory has advantages superior to those of Oregon for foreign commerce, lumbering and fishing. The main advantages of Oregon over both, are in having a large body of level, rich prairie land, with abundant water, and neither too much nor too little timber.

The population of Oregon is largely composed of emigrants from Missouri and Illinois. In 1848, it was estimated at about 8,000 souls; in 1860, it was 52,566.

Portland, the largest and most important town in Oregon, is upon the Willamette, at the head of ship navigation, 15 miles above its entrance into the Columbia, and overland from St. Louis 2,300 miles. Population about 3,000. Almost the whole of the foreign trade of Oregon is done through Portland, excepting the southern part, and that finds its seaport in Crescent City, of California. Portland lies 120 miles from the ocean, access to it being had through the Columbia, which at low tide, in dry seasons, has only 9 feet of water—scarcely enough for sea-going vessels. The Pacific coast is destitute of good harbors.

Oregon City is 12 miles above Portland, in a narrow high walled valley on the Willamette, which affords here, by its falls, great water power for manufacturing facilities. Excepting at this place and on the Columbia River, water power is scarce in Oregon, save at points very difficult of access.

Astoria is on the south side of the Columbia, 10 miles from its mouth. This place, so long noted as an important depot in the fur trade, has now but a few dwellings. In this neighborhood are forests of pine, which have long been noted for their beauty and size. Lieut. Wilkes thus speaks of them: "Short excursions were made by many of us in the vicinity, and one of these was to visit the primeval forest of pines in the rear of Astoria, a sight well worth seeing. Mr. Drayton took a camera lucida drawing of one of the largest trees, which the preceding plate is engraved from. It conveys a good idea of the thick growth of trees, and is quite characteristic of this forest. The soil on which this timber grows is rich and fertile, but the obstacles to the agriculturist are almost insuperable. The largest tree of the sketch was thirty-nine feet six inches in circumference, eight feet above the ground, and had a bark eleven inches thick. The height could not be ascertained, but it was thought to be upward of two hundred and fifty feet, and the tree was perfectly straight." These trees, for at least one hundred and fifty feet, are without branches. In many places those which have fallen down, present barriers to the vision, even when the traveler is on horseback; and between the old forest trees that are lying prostrate, can be seen the tender and small twig beginning its journey to an amazing height.

Salem, the capital of Oregon, is on the Willamette, 50 miles above Oregon City. The other towns on this river and tributaries are *Milwaukie*, *Buteville*, *Champoeg*, *Fairfield*, *Albany*, *Corvallis*, *Bonerville*, *Eugene City*, *Clackamas*, *LaFayette*, *Parkersburg*, and *Santiane*. On the Umpqua are *Gardner*, *Middleton*, *Scottsburg*, *Winchester*, *Roseburg*, and *Canowille*. In Rogue valley are *Jacksonville*, *Waldo*, and *Althouse*. On the Columbia the towns are *Astoria*, *Rainier*, *Gardner*, *St. Helena*, and the *Dalles*, all very small places.

NEBRASKA.

NEBRASKA was organized as a territory, with Kansas, in 1854, and then had the immense area of 336,000 square miles. In February, 1867, it was admitted as a State of the Union.

The face of the country is gently rolling prairie, and there are numerous small creeks and rivers, along the banks of which is timber.

The climate of Nebraska is favorable, and the atmosphere pure, clear, and dry. The soil is quick and lively, producing Indian corn, wheat, oats, hemp, tobacco, and sorghum. Vegetables of all kinds thrive well, and it produces fine grapes.

As a grazing country Nebraska can not be surpassed, and stock raising is extensively carried on. The wild grass predominates here as in Utah, and cattle, horses, and mules fatten on it very readily. The bottom lands abound with rushes, and stock are often kept out the whole winter through, and are found to fatten without fodder.

Nebraska being an agricultural and stock-raising country, and also the great starting-point and highway for travel over the plains, her lands are sought after by immigrants. In the neighborhood of good settlements the settler has the advantages of churches and schools already established. As a general rule, farms can be bought at less than the cost of improvements, owing to the constant emigration to the adjacent gold mines of Colorado and Montana. Timber and stone are found in sufficient quantities for building purposes. Stone coal has been discovered in several places.

The principal rivers are the Missouri and the Platte. The first is navigable by steamboats for many hundred miles above the northern point of Nebraska. The Platte enters the Missouri River near Omaha City. This river runs almost due west, through a fine valley extending four or five hundred miles through the center of Nebraska, and has always been the favorite, as it has been almost the only route to the new states and territories of Utah, Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, Montana, Washington, Oregon, and California. The principal outfitting points are on the west side of the Missouri, and are Brownsville, Nebraska City, Plattsmouth, and Omaha. The roads from these westward are good, and all intersect at or near Fort Kearney.

The line of emigration of the United States, it is estimated now advances westward at an annual rate of seventeen miles. The territorial expansion of the population absorbs annually 17,000 square miles, for when population exceeds eight persons to a square mile it emigrates. Within the last thirty years, the United States have added, on the west, *eleven new states*, with an aggregate area of 934,462 square miles, and three millions of people. With the natural increase of inhabitants, consumption of territory for colonization, if it existed, would increase in a far greater ratio. But it does not exist. *The western limit of agricultural land in the United States is already reached.* Mr. J. A. Wheelock, commissioner of statistics of Minnesota, in his annual report for 1860, presents these facts under the heading of:

ARABLE AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES EXHAUSTED.

The extended explorations made within the last few years under the auspices of the United States government, of the region between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, have revealed the startling fact in the physics of the United

States, that the westward progress of its population has nearly reached the extreme western limit of the areas available for settlement, and that the whole space west of the 98th parallel, embracing one half of the entire surface of the United States, is an arid and desolate waste, with the exception of a narrow belt of rich lands along the Pacific coast. This momentous fact, which is destined in its results to revolutionize the whole scheme of continental development, and to give a new direction to the movements of trade and population, was first announced as a positive generalization by Professor Henry, of the Smithsonian Institute, in a learned paper on meteorology in its connection with agriculture. From this paper we quote: "The general character of the soil between the Mississippi River and the Atlantic, is that of great fertility. The portion also on the western side of the Mississippi, as far as the 98th meridian, including the states of Texas, Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and Minnesota, and portions of the territories of Kansas and Nebraska, are fertile, though abounding in prairies, and subject occasionally to droughts. The whole space to the west, between the 98th meridian and the Rocky Mountains, is a barren waste, over which the eye may roam to the extent of the visible horizon, with scarcely an object to break the monotony. From the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, with the exception of a rich, but narrow belt along the ocean, the country may also be considered, in comparison with other portions of the United States, a wilderness unfitted for the uses of the husbandman; although in some of the mountain valleys, as at Salt Lake, by means of irrigation, a precarious supply of food may be obtained."

It is not necessary to quote the detailed description of this American Sahara. The concluding words of Prof. Henry, upon this subject, are more to our purpose. "We have stated that the entire region west of the 98th degree of west longitude, with the exception of a small portion of western Texas, and the narrow border along the Pacific, is a country of comparatively little value to the agriculturist,* and perhaps it will astonish the reader if we direct his attention to the fact that this line, which passes southward from Lake Winnipeg to the Gulf of Mexico, will divide the whole surface of the United States into two nearly equal parts. This statement, when fully appreciated, will serve to dissipate some of the dreams which have been considered as realities, as to the destiny of the western part of the North American continent. Truth, however, transcends even the laudable feelings of pride of country, and in order properly to direct the policy of this great confederacy, it is necessary to be well acquainted with the theater in which its future history is to be enacted."

That "rich but narrow belt of fertile lands upon the Pacific," has already been blocked out with the prosperous states of California and Oregon, with an aggregate population of 450,000.

Upon the eastern bank of the great American desert, Kansas already contains a population sufficient to form a state. Eastern Nebraska and Dacotah are rapidly filling up. Here are, altogether, about 160,000 square miles to be made into new states, and this is all that remains of the national domain—all that remains to supply an imperative and permanent demand for new areas, which absorbs 170,955 square miles every ten years in the formation of new states.

In the very fullness and strength of its westward flow, the tide of immigration is even now arrested upon the brink of a sterile waste, which covers half the national domain.

This event is the turning point in American history. It is the beginning of that cumulative pressure of population upon the means of subsistence, which is

*In general, this vast tract may be termed a waterless, timberless, desert-like country. While the annual fall of rain in the eastern states amounts to about 42 inches, it is supposed that in the country from the British line south to Texas, and from the 98th meridian to the Sierra Nevada Mountains, of California, the annual amount of rain does not exceed, on an average 10 inches! We all know of the terrible drought of 1880 in Kansas. The interior part of our continent will always be more or less subject to such calamities. An officer of the U. S. army, commandant of a post in the vicinity of San Antonio, states to us that in all that part of Texas, there has been no rain of consequence within the past five years! The garrison was unable to procure even enough vegetables for its own consumption.

to test the stability of our institutions. But aside from its political effects, it will have these important results on the material condition of the country. 1. *It will condense population within its present limits, and thus add to the wealth and social power of existing states.* 2. *By placing a positive limitation upon the supply of western lands it will largely enhance their value.*

Beyond the present line of settlement in eastern Nebraska and Kansas to California and Oregon, *stock raising* on the immense prairies, on which now roam countless herds of buffalo, and *gold and silver mining* in the mountains, must be the main supports of the population. That these industries may in the course of half a century give birth to many new states, and occupation for millions of inhabitants, is not improbable; but the food to support them will require to be principally drawn from the rich agricultural country on and near the Mississippi River. With this condition in prospective, the ultimate value of these lands will be greatly enhanced.

The population of Nebraska is composed of emigrants from the free states of the Northwest, and is now confined to the eastern border, along the banks of the Missouri. In 1860, Nebraska had 23,893 inhabitants.

Omaha City, the capital of Nebraska, is beautifully situated on a wide plateau, the second bottom of the Missouri River, and opposite the city of Council Bluffs, in Iowa. The site had not a single dwelling in 1854, and in the fall of 1866 it had an estimated population of 9,000; and with fine prospects for the future, for here begins the northernmost Union Pacific Railroad.

A writer of that period thus speaks of this great work: "At Omaha the Union Pacific Railroad begins. It has as yet no connecting lines of rail in any direction. It commences in the air on the banks of the Missouri River at Omaha, and has already streamed away toward sunset, for 275 miles. For thirty miles after leaving Omaha, it runs southwest through a rolling prairie. Then it strikes the great Platte Valley, which extends due west to the base of the Rocky Mountains, a distance of over 600 miles. *For this 600 miles nature has provided a perfectly graded bed for a railway, or for forty railways.* Think of a magnificent valley, 600 miles long and from five to twenty broad, with a uniform descent of only six or seven feet per mile, and level as a barn floor, stretching from the Missouri River to the foot of the great peaks that look down upon the Pacific slope!"

This Union Pacific Railroad is commonly known as the Chicago road, in contradistinction to that which starts from St. Louis. The latter in the year 1866 was fully completed as far as Fort Riley in Kansas; while the other, for some distance east of Omaha, had no rail connection until January, 1867, when through connection with Chicago was effected, via Council Bluffs.

It was originally designed that the St. Louis and Chicago roads should meet at Fort Kearney, but St. Louis has permission to take an independent and more southern route via Smokey Hill, running directly through Denver, Colorado, and she will avail herself of it. As this will result in our having *two* Pacific Railroads within the next five or six years, no one will mourn over the departure from the original plan. One will run west through central Kansas; the other through central Nebraska. In other words, one will take the latitude of Chicago, the other that of St. Louis.

To each one of these companies, Congress loans \$16,000 in thirty-year bonds for every mile of the road completed, withdraws its first lien upon the road, and allows the company to negotiate first mortgage bonds bearing seven per cent. interest and redeemable in gold, to the additional amount of \$16,000 per mile. For all transportations on account of the Government, the road receives one half in cash and credits the other half upon the interest of the thirty year bonds. In addition to this subsidy Government donates in fee simple to the company 12,800 acres of land for every mile of the road completed, equal to a solid belt twenty miles wide through all the public lands, and allows these lands to be selected in alternate sections over a belt fifty miles wide.

The other prominent places and localities in Nebraska, are *Plattsmouth, Nebraska City, Nemaha City, Bellevue, Florence, Saratoga, Fontenelle, Brownsville, Mt. Vernon, St. George, and Columbus.*

The Territories
of the
UNITED STATES.

COLORADO TERRITORY.

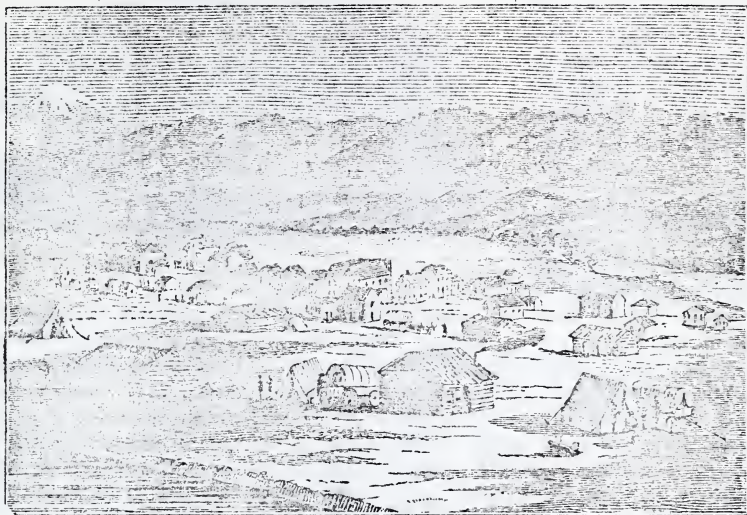
COLORADO was formed into a territory February 18, 1861. Colorado derives its name from the Colorado River, and its population from the discovery of gold in the vicinity of *Pike's Peak*. Its area is 104,500 square miles. Estimated population, late in 1864, 32,000. Capital, Denver.

A great part of this territory lies upon the Rocky Mountains, with their foot hills and adjacent plains. Within it the Arkansas and Platte Rivers have their sources, and running easterly empty into the Mississippi; Green River and other affluents of the great Colorado of the West here also take their rise, and flowing westerly discharge their waters into the Pacific. Its mineral deposits are half way between the Mississippi and the Pacific, and about 1,000 miles from each, and in the same latitude with the rich mineral regions of Carson Valley. Within it are the three beautiful vales of the Rocky Mountains, known respectively as Middle, South and North Parks, while the noted *Pike's Peak* rises up grandly 10,600 feet above the level of the plains, and 18,600, or more than three and a half miles above the level of the sea. This mountain received its name from its discoverer, Capt. Z. M. Pike, while at the head of an exploring expedition sent out in 1806, in Jefferson's administration, to ascertain the sources of the Arkansas. He ascended to the summit, and was the first white man to gaze upon the magnificent panorama seen from that point. A visitor of our time thus relates his experience there:

"The summit is of an irregular, oblong shape, nearly level, embracing about sixty acres, and composed entirely of angular slabs and blocks of coarse disintegrating granite. The fresh snow was two or three inches deep in the interstices among the rocks, but had nearly all melted from their surfaces.

The day was clear, and the view indescribably grand and impressive. To the eastward for a hundred miles, our eyes wandered over the dim, dreary prairies, spotted by the dark shadows of the clouds and the deeper green of the pineries, intersected by the faint gray lines of the roads, and emerald threads of timber, which mark the meandering of the streams, and banded on the far horizon with a girdle of gold. At our feet, below the now insignificant mountains up which we had toiled so wearily, was Colorado City, to the naked eye a confused city of Lilliputs, but through the glasses exhibiting its buildings in perfect distinctness, and beside one of them our own carriage with a man standing near it.

Further south swept the green timbers of the Fontaine qui Bouille, the Arkansas and the Huerfano, and then rose the blue Spanish peaks of New Mexico, a hundred miles away. Eight or ten miles from our stand-point, two little gems of lakes, nestled among the rugged mountains, revealing even the shadows of the rocks and pines in their transparent waters. Far beyond, a group of tiny lakelets glittered and sparkled in their dark surroundings like a cluster of stars.



View in Denver.

Cherry Creek is seen in front, Platte River in the middle distance, the Rocky Mountains in the background, and on the extreme left, at the distance of seventy miles, appears the snow-clad summit of Pike's Peak.

To the west, the South Park, 40 miles in length, the Bayou Salado, and other amphitheatres of rich floral beauty—gardens of nature amid the utter desolation of the mountains—were spread thousands of feet below us; and beyond, peak after peak, until the pure white wall of the Snowy Range merged into the infinite blue of the sky. Toward the north-east we could trace the timbers of the Platte, for more than seventy miles; but though the junction of Cherry creek, even to the unassisted eye, showed the exact location of Denver, our glasses did not enable us to detect the buildings.

These of course were only the more prominent features of the landscape. To the north, south and west the intervening expanse was one vast wilderness of mountains of diverse forms and mingling colors, with clouds of fleecy white sailing airily among their scarred and wrinkled summits. By walking a few hundred yards, from one slight elevation to another, we looked upon four territories of the Union—Kansas, Nebraska, Utah and New Mexico. Almost from the same stand-point we viewed regions watered by four of the great rivers of the continent—the Platte, Arkansas, Rio Grande, and Colorado—tributaries respectively of the Missouri, the Mississippi, the Gulf of Mexico and the Gulf of California.

A gorge upon the north side is still more gigantic than that on the south-east. A colossal plowshare seems to have been driven fiercely down from the summit almost to the base, leaving a gaping furrow, visible even from Denver [seventy miles] and deep enough in itself to bury a mountain of considerable pretensions."

Like mineral regions generally, this is deficient in agricultural resources; it may in time produce sufficient to support a considerable mining population. It is, however, more probable that it will become an important market

for the rich agricultural districts of eastern Kansas and Nebraska. "The soil east of the foot of the mountains is mostly arid and sandy, and as very little rain falls during the summer, is not adapted to farming purposes. Even the valleys of the streams appear unproductive; pulverize a handful of the soil, and it proves to consist almost entirely of sand. But it is precisely



STREET IN DENVER IN 1850.

identical with the soil of the valleys in New Mexico; and like them, with irrigation, it will produce abundantly all the small grains and vegetables. The valleys in the gold region will produce all the great staples of that latitude, with perhaps the exception of corn. Their elevation is nearly 5,000 feet above the

sea; frosts are frequent, even during the summer, and it is doubtful whether corn will flourish, unless it be the small species grown in Mexico, or the variety recently introduced in Oregon, in which each kernal is encased in a separate husk. The *climate* of the great plains and of the Rocky Mountain country is one of the healthiest in the world. The air is so dry and pure that fresh meat, cut in summer in strips, and in winter in quarters, and hung up out of doors, will cure so perfectly, without salting or smoking, that it may be carried to any quarter of the globe. The nights, even in summer, are cool and often cold." The winters are long and terribly severe; snow falls early in the fall and late in the spring. The *Parks* in the Rocky Mountains are mild in winter, affording abundance of food for stock, and have always been favorite winter haunts for the Indians. "They are comparatively smooth, fertile spots—the principal ones from 30 to 60 miles in diameter—inclosed on all sides by high mountain walls: in the language of Fremont, "gems of rich floral beauty, shut up in the stern recesses of the mountains."

The mountain districts are well watered. "The country abounds in timber, the prevailing variety being pine—immense forests of both the yellow and white being common. On the streams the white cherry and timber common to this latitude are found. Game is exceedingly abundant—the black-tailed deer, red deer, elk, antelope, mountain sheep, black bear, etc., being found in all portions of the country. It is a favorite resort for the Indians, as it affords them plenty of game when off their buffalo hunts, and where they get their lodge poles and equipments for their excursions for Buffalo on the plains."

This country has only of late been a point of attraction to emigrants. The discovery of *gold* has been the talisman to draw multitudes of the hardy and enterprising of our countrymen to this Rocky Mountain land. It had long been believed by the hunters and trappers of the Rocky Mountains, that the existence of gold and silver, near the sources of the Arkansas and South Platte, was known to the Indians, and though search was made the exact spot could never be ascertained. "In 1835, a hunter, named Eustace Carriere, became separated from his companions, and wandered about for some weeks, during which period he discovered some grains of gold on the surface of the ground, which he took with him to Mexico. On his arrival there he exhibited his specimens, and a company was formed, having Carriere for their guide to the new El Dorado. Unfortunately for himself, Carriere was unable to find the precise spot, and the Mexicans, thinking that he did not

wish to disclose the secret to them, set upon him, and having punished him severely, left him and returned to Mexico. Nothing was then heard for some time, but in the winter of 1851 an old trapper, who had been living among the Indians for some years, came to the settlements and reported the existence of a cave, in which there was a quantity of solid masses of gold, hanging from the roof, like stalactites or immense icicles. He urged the formation of a company, and offered to conduct men to the spot, but the story was too large, and he could not induce any one to accompany him. He afterward left for the Indian country by himself, and nothing has since been heard of him.

In 1850, a party of California emigrants passing through this part, found traces of gold, and some of the party wished to stay and examine carefully, but the majority, who had heard of the California nuggets being as 'large as a brick,' wished to proceed on their journey. Capt John Beck, who was of this party, on his return from California, took out a party of a hundred men to this gold field, and from that time the presence of gold was a recognized fact. Party then rapidly succeeded party, every one who returned from the mines giving a highly colored account of the fortunes to be realized there. In May, 1853, a party from Lawrence, Kansas, was induced by these favorable reports to proceed to the diggings, where they found matters even better than had been represented. The result of their discoveries soon became known, and this new El Dorado suddenly became the great magnet of attraction of this continent." So great in two years was the rush of emigration that, in 1860, the census gave the population of the newly found gold region at about *sixty thousand*.

The GOLD REGION is known to extend several hundred miles along the Rocky Mountains. The best part of it is supposed to be between latitudes 37° and 42°. "It is the general opinion that quartz mining must always be the leading interest here; and miners with only the pan and rocker or sluice have not as yet been able, as they were originally in California, to obtain \$5 or \$10 per day wherever they might locate. Many old Californians, however, aver that the quartz 'prospects' much more richly here than it ever has in the golden state." As early as October, 1860, 75 quartz mills were in operation in the mountains, and 100 more being put up, which, upon the ground and in running order, cost in the aggregate nearly two millions of dollars. The estimated yield of gold for the year was five millions in value. Some rich silver lodes had then been discovered; but the development of this industry must be slow, from the great expense of erecting proper reduction works, and the difficulty of obtaining the practical skill to amalgamate the mineral.

Denver, Auraria and Highland were established by three different companies, but they are substantially one city, and the metropolis of the gold region. They are seventy miles north of Pike's Peak, at the confluence of Cherry Creek and the South Platte River; and distant, by air lines, from St. Louis, 800, Santa Fe, 300, San Francisco, 1,000, and Salt Lake, 400 miles.

Denver and Auraria were the first founded. The first house built on the site of Denver was erected on Oct. 29, 1858, by Gen. Wm. Larimer and party, who had just arrived from Leavenworth. It was a rude log cabin, only six feet high, with a roof of sods. Highland is beautifully situated on the west bank of the Platte. The three places, in general terms, are now called Denver, which, in the fall of 1860, two years after the first house was erected, contained three daily newspapers, two churches, a theater, several fine brick blocks, two bridges across the Platte, excellent roads leading from it to the principal diggings, and 5,000 inhabitants.

Colorado City, 80 miles south of Denver, was founded in 1859 at the foot of Pike's Peak, and had, in 1860, 1,500 inhabitants. *Golden City*, 15 miles west of Denver, in 1860, had a population of 1,200. *St. Vrain* is on the Platte, 40 miles north of Denver, and on the site of the old trading post of Col Ceran St. Vrain, frequently alluded to in Fremont's expeditions.

Hall, in his "Emigrants' and Settlers' Guide," gives this description of the climate and productions of Colorado. He is also full and enthusiastic upon its mineral wealth. He describes, somewhat in detail, the mode practiced in gold mining and the various processes for extracting the ore. We copy his article below, almost entire.

"The Climate.—The climate of Colorado varies with its height, both as to temperature and the amount of rain and snow. The climate of that portion lying at the base and east of the mountains is not only delightful but remarkably healthy. The frosts come generally early in the autumn, and continue far into the spring months, but they are not severe. On the plains, the snows of winter are never sufficient to prevent cattle of all kinds from thriving and fattening on the nutritious grass, dried up and thus cured by nature in July and August.

Throughout the winter months, with rare exceptions, the sun blazes down with an almost tropic glow, little or no snow falls, and although the nights are sometimes sharp and frosty, there is no steady intensity of cold.

With such a climate Colorado could not well be otherwise than healthy. The sanitary condition of the territory is good, and the number of deaths, considering the labor and exposure to which the great majority of its inhabitants are subjected, remarkably small.

Agricultural Products.—In a country so remote from the agricultural districts of the states, and where the expense of transporting supplies is so heavy, the need of home production is necessarily very great. The rather scanty opportunities which Colorado presents as a field for agriculture have been, however, improved to the utmost. An extensive system of irrigation has been introduced, which, it is thought, will relieve the settlers from lack of rain and other difficulties which have hitherto limited agricultural progress.

As regards the production of grain, the crops on the various branches of the South Platte, Arkansas, *Fontain que Bruille*, afford encouraging prospects.

In the southern part of the territory considerable attention has been paid to the raising of wheat, corn, barley, and other cereals; but the continuance of dry weather presents a formidable obstacle to great success in this direction.

The bottom lands of the Platte River and other mountain streams have a rich alluvial deposit, which only requires water at long intervals to promote an astonishing vegetable growth. All the succulent varieties of plants, such as potatoes, cabbages, onions, squashes, etc., attain an enormous size, retaining the tenderness, juiciness, and sweetness which almost everywhere else belong only to the smaller varieties. The wild fruits of the territory are also numerous and abundant. It is believed that Colorado will, in a few years, be able to supply her own home demand for the necessities of life.

Stock Raising etc.—As a grazing and stock-raising region Colorado possesses great advantages. Near the base of the rocky ranges, and along the valleys of the streams which have their origin in the mountains, vegetation is prolific. The grasses are not only abundant, but they contain more nutriment than the cultivated species of the most prosperous agricultural districts of the Mississippi valley. These grasses cure standing, and cattle have been known to feed and thrive upon them throughout the entire winter months.

Minerals—Mining, etc.—As a gold-mining country, Colorado is second only to California. The Colorado gold mines differ from those of California in this particular, viz.: that in the former the precious ore is generally found in extensive “lodes” of quartz and pyrites, while in the latter, placer or gulch mining are the most extensive and the most profitable. We do not mean to be understood by this that there are no placer mines in Colorado. Numerous gulches and ravines have been extensively worked in different parts of the territory, and in some instances the yield has been astonishingly rich and abundant; but, up to the present time, the extent of the discoveries of gulch, bar, or river deposits has not seemed to establish a claim for Colorado as a great placer mining region.

That the inexperienced may more clearly understand the difference between “placer” and “lode” mining, the following brief explanation is appended:

“Placer” and “Lode” Mining.—Where deposits of gold are found in gulches, on bars, or in river beds, mixed only with the sands and alluvial washings of the mountains or hillsides, and requiring only the action of water, by sluicing or hydraulics, to separate them from the earthy mixture, the term “placer” is applied to this mode of mining. On the other hand, where gold deposits are found mixed with quartz rock, pyrites of iron and copper or other metals, and occupying *veins* between walls of solid granite, they are called “lode” mines. The latter can only be worked profitably by the aid of capital and powerful machinery; but experience has confirmed the belief that this kind of mining is more permanent and quite as profitable as “placer” mining. The mines of Colorado are of this class, and the leading enterprises of the population are specially directed to the improvement and development of these veins or crevices.

Mining Machinery used in Colorado.—The success of any mining region is dependent, primarily, upon manual labor; liberal capital and powerful machinery are important accessories, however, and in Colorado they are essential ones.

The machinery generally in use there for obtaining gold from the quartz or ore is of very simple construction, consisting chiefly of an engine (or wheel, if water-power is used,) and a set of stamps for crushing the ore. It is the opinion of all practical miners in Colorado, with only one or two exceptions, that the engines now in use there are by no means large enough for the required use. The largest of them measures 14-inch cylinder, and 24-inch stroke, running 24 revolutions per minute, and carrying about 50 pounds of steam. In Colorado this engine is estimated at 80-horse power. All other engines are likewise overrated, and to do the work required of them they are run at high speed. Most of the engines and stamping machinery have, thus far, been made in St. Louis and Chicago. The principal water-wheel used is the over-shot, although there are some under-shot and breast-wheels.

Mining Claims.—In Colorado liberal laws are in force, which give to the fortunate discoverer of a quartz vein 200 local feet of the same, and to all others who apply in season 100 feet not already claimed. These claims are recorded in the clerk's office of the district, and by this process the rights of the parties are secured and respected.

Having made your claim and had it recorded, the next thing for the miner to do is to see to

Sinking a Shaft.—This is sometimes attended with great labor, and not a little expense. The cost of sinking a shaft, four feet wide and twelve feet long, through the "cap" is estimated to be about \$25 per running foot, if the shaft is from 60 to 100 feet deep: \$30 per foot if it is from 100 to 160 feet deep, and so on in proportion, the expense increasing with the depth, and consequent difficulty of drawing the rubbish to the surface.

Much, of course, depends upon the hardness of the rock through which the shaft is sunk. In some cases a large proportion, or the whole of the expenses of the shaft is defrayed by the gold found during the progress of the work. Indeed, some mines have been sunk to a great depth without encountering the "cap" at all.

Method of Raising the Ore.—The quartz mills are, with but a single exception, some distance from the shafts or mines. The hoisting is performed by an ordinary "whim," worked sometimes by a horse or mule, and sometimes by a five or six horse-power engine; a ten or fifteen horse engine would be better when the shafts are worked to great depths.

Process of Extracting the Ore.—The usual mode of extracting the gold may be simply described as follows: The ore is crushed to powder by heavy stamps, which fall down with great force; then the powder is mixed with water, run over metallic plates, having slight ridges on their surface, and smeared with quicksilver: thus part of the gold is retained.

Two new processes of separating the ore, which are now in extensive operation, may be thus briefly described:

The Freiberg Pan, so called from the name of the place where it was invented, Freiberg, Germany—is a wooden tub of perhaps eight feet in diameter, and three feet high, with a false bottom of iron, upon which move in a circle four mullers of stone or iron, attached to the arms of a central upright shaft. This shaft propels the mullers by the power of steam. In this pan or tub are deposited, from time to time, quantities of pulverized quartz, with the gold dust intermingled. Water is let in, to the depth of ten or twelve inches, and a stream of it allowed to run constantly. This water escapes at an orifice made at the proper height, and carries with it all floating dust. The water is warmed by steam and kept at a uniform temperature. The motion of the mullers destroys the chemical affinities of the several substances, and allows the quicksilver to take it. This pan is coming into use in several mills. A large mill will soon be built in Nevada to make use of this process.

The Bertola Pan, which takes its name from the Spaniard who invented it, is more extensively used, and promises better for all kinds of ores. It is about half the size of the Freiberg pan, and entirely of iron. The dust is operated upon in the same way in both pans—water, and stone mullers being used. The chemicals, however, in the Bertola method, are deposited with the dust, while in the Freiberg they are not. What chemicals are used is still a secret, carefully guarded by those who make use of the process. Many large mills are adopting it with great confidence. Messrs. Cook & Kimball have thirty pairs of pans in operation in their large mill, Central City. They are also about to erect an immense mill for a new company in New York, on Clear Creek, for the purpose of operating one hundred and fifty pair of pans. The friends of this process are very confident of its entire success.

The above-named methods of operating upon the ore are designed to

overcome chemical affinities, difficulties which can not be obviated by the common process. All kinds of chemicals are found in the ore, and some of them are great neutralizers of the power of quicksilver. Owing to these, in some ores, not more than a fourth part of the gold is saved in the common process. Sulphur is found in abundance, and it is a great hindrance to mining.

The Keith Process.—Dr. Keith has undertaken to master this difficulty by first pulverizing and then burning the dust—the sulphur affording the combustible agent. It is done in a furnace with an escape flue to create a draft, which runs up the mountain side several hundred feet. It further consists of a jaw working on a frame at about 25 strokes, crushing the dry ore, which is then conveyed by a tube or trough to a close, narrow sort of fan-mill, fitted inside with three revolving arms. The crushed ore is introduced into the center, and the high speed throws it out along the arms till it is reduced to fine powder, when the draft caused by the arms carries it through a three or four inch-flue into a furnace, heated to an intense heat. The flue then expanding to a width of three or four feet and one foot in height, takes a slanting direction down, about 10 feet, at an angle of 45 degrees, all the time heated by fire underneath. The sulphur is separated from the ore in this flue, and at the bottom it is sent through an opening in the roof of the flue; another flue passing along the top of the first, and so off into the air, while the desulphurized ore falls into a pit, where it cools, and is taken out and submitted to the action of quicksilver. This "process" is said to be satisfactory.

Appearance of the Ore.—"All is not gold that glitters." The gold ore is usually of a light gray color. Many particles of it shine brightly in the sun, and form handsome specimens to carry away, but these are not the precious metal. That which glitters is not gold, but chiefly pyrites of iron.

Productiveness of the Ore.—The Hon. John Evans, governor of Colorado, states that the ore in most of the lodes now worked pay at least \$36 per tun, while in some instances the same quantity yields \$150, \$200, and even as high as \$500, treated by the stamping process alone. This ore yields, upon analysis, from three to six times as much gold as can be saved by the ordinary methods now in use, giving results which to the inexperienced miner appear almost fabulous; but of course no practical conclusions can be drawn from merely chemical analyses inapplicable upon a large scale. The practical proof is in the actual yield and profit to the miner.

The cost of each tun of quartz may be fairly stated at \$12, and the yield at \$36, thus affording a profit at the rate of 200 per cent. and that, too, in a manufacture or business where the returns are unusually quick and active—the various operations of mining and crushing the ore, extracting and selling the gold being easily performed within a week.

Total Product of Gold.—It is a difficult matter to give, in figures, the amount of the gold product of Colorado since the commencement of mining operations, in 1858. No sufficient data exist for the computation of the whole yield of the territory. But an approximate estimate, based upon various records, can be made, which affords a gratifying exhibit, and from which fair deductions for the future may be made.

The reports of the receipts at the Philadelphia United States mint show the following figures:

| | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|-------------|
| 1859..... | \$ 4,000 | 1862..... | \$6,000,000 |
| 1860..... | 600,000 | 1863 (estimated)..... | 13,500,000 |
| 1861..... | 1,600,000 | 1864 (estimated)..... | 20,000,000 |

The above statement falls short of the aggregate yield of the territory Much was sent to other places than Philadelphia, and through other channels; much, too, remained in the hands of miners. There is every reason to believe that the gold product of 1864 will not fall short of *twenty millions of dollars*.

Other Mineral Products.—The territory is said to abound in metals of various kinds, but the *sacra fames* ("sacred hunger") for gold at present absorbs all the attention of the miners.

Iron ore, of a good quality, is found in some parts of the territory, not far from Denver, and in close proximity to coal. Silver and lead, in small quantities, have also been discovered. Platinum, zinc, manganese, magnetic iron, sand, alum, salt, and petroleum are also among the mineral products of the country."

Hand Mills and Hand Mortars, for the purpose of crushing the quartz gold, first came into use in the gold regions in the beginning of 1865. Whatever invention or process will assist individual labor, in contradistinction to that of associated capital, is the most important in the development of a country. A newspaper, published at Austin, in Nevada, at the beginning of 1865, thus speaks of the beneficial influence of their introduction:

Some few of our citizens have censured us severely for advocating and recommending the use of horse and hand-mills, and, hand-mortars, for the purpose of crushing ore, and some went even so far as to say that we were encouraging petit larceny, as many of the persons who were engaged in the business did not have claims, or sufficient means to purchase the rock. But it does not follow, that to make a hand-mill pay, a person must "jayhawk" the rock. There are hundreds of claims in this city and vicinity that have been abandoned, not because they were not rich, but simply because the owners did not have means necessary to work them. From these claims an abundance of ore can be obtained to run all the hand-mills that will be started here for ages. Three months since there was not a horse or hand-mill in the city, and but few hand-mortars used. Now there are over thirty of the former in successful operation, the latter having gone almost entirely out of use. From Mr. Salmon, the inventor of the new amalgamator, we learn some interesting facts. He is engaged in amalgamating exclusively for the horse and hand-mills, and does it with one of his tubs by hand-power. He takes out over \$500 per week, but finds it impossible to do all the work that is offered him. The bullion will run over 900 fine. Four gentlemen, for whom it has been working, took out sufficient after night, in hand-mortars, to keep them in provisions and develop their claim, and they are now having a large lot worked at one of the steam-mills. Another, who was on the eve of leaving here in despair, went to work with a hand-mill, and has taken out enough to send for his family to Wisconsin, besides having sufficient means to last him the ensuing winter. Mr. Salmon knows of many good and experienced miners who would have left the country, but who, by these miniature inventions, have been enabled to "stick it out," work on their claims, and help to develop our wonderful and most remarkable mines. There is at least \$2000 per week of bullion taken out by these mills, and it is constantly increasing. They keep many men employed, assist in developing a number of mines, and put many dollars of our buried wealth into circulation; besides, it makes all engaged in the business thorough and experienced mill men.

MONTANA TERRITORY.

MONTANA* was originally a part of Idaho, and was formed in 1864. It is one of the largest of the territories, comprising an estimated area of 140,000 square miles. It lies south of the British possessions, from the 27th to the 34th degrees of longitude. The Rocky Mountains and their foot hills occupy the western and central parts. Within it are the head waters of the Columbia River, of Oregon, and those of the main Missouri, and its great branch the Yellow Stone.

Until the first year of the rebellion, Montana was a trackless wilderness. Before the close of the war, the rapidity and extent of mineral discoveries attracted the attention of miners and capitalists, and in defiance of obstacles of travel and climate, they forced their way into this new and distant land.

It is favored with a healthy climate, and quite as mild as that of many of the Northern and Eastern States. Particularly is the climate moderate on the Pacific side of the mountains.

At Fort Benton, on the Missouri River, a trading post of the American Fur Company, which has an elevation of 2632 feet above the level of the sea, their horses and cattle, of which they have a large number, are never housed or fed in winter, but get their living without difficulty.

The fall of the temperature as winter approaches, appears to be much more abrupt east of the mountains, in this latitude, than at the west or in the vicinity of Great Lakes.

In the Deer Lodge Prairie, in the valley of the Deer Lodge River, just west of the mountains, are very fine farming lands. Beautiful prairie openings occur at frequent intervals, in the valleys both of the Hell Gate and Bitter Root Rivers. At the settlement called Hell Gate, situated at the junction of the river by that name, and the Bitter Root, are several farms which yield all the cereals and vegetables in great abundance, bringing prices that would astonish farmers in the States, as parties are constantly passing through that region on their way to the mines, and glad to purchase supplies.

Several years since, Gov. Stevens of Washington Territory, said in an official report:

"I estimate that in the valleys on the western slopes of the Rocky Mountains, and extending no further than the Bitter Root range of mountains, there may be some 6000 square miles of arable land, upon grassed lands with good soils, and already prepared for occupation and settlement; and that in addition to this amount, there are valleys having good soils, and favorable for settlement, which will be cleared in the removal of lumber

* The description given of this Territory, is abridged from "Hall's Emigrants, Settlers and Travelers' Guide and Hand Book to California, Nevada, Oregon and the Territories; accompanied by a map showing the roads to the Gold Fields, with tables of distances." It is an invaluable little pamphlet for the emigrant. It is mailed from the *New York Tribune* office, on receipt of the price—25 cents.

from them. The faint attempts made by the Indians at cultivating the soil, have been attended with good success, and fair returns might be expected of all such crops as are adapted to the Northern States of our country.

"The numerous mountain rivulets tributary to the Bitter Root River, that run through the valley, afford excellent and abundant mill-seats; and the land bordering these is fertile and productive, and has been proved beyond a cavil or doubt to be well suited to every branch of agriculture."

In these valleys much grain is already grown, and along the Bitter Root several flouring mills may be found. Produce brings a good price and the increasing demand for breadstuffs at Bannock City and other mining towns, will insure a more vigorous effort on the part of the husbandman.

The cattle in the Deer Lodge Valley run at large in winter, and thrive and fatten rapidly. There is a considerable settlement in the Valley, and stock raising is quickly becoming a lucrative business, the mining population in the vicinity increasing rapidly, and affording a good market. The pasturage grounds of the Bitter Root Valley are unsurpassed. The extensive bands of horses owned by the Flat-Head Indians occupying St. Mary's Village, on Bitter Root River, thrive well winter and summer.

At about the latitude of $46^{\circ} 30'$, the Deer Lodge River and the Black-foot form a junction and are then called the Hell Gate, which unites with the Bitter Root or St. Mary's River, in latitude 47° , and assumes the name of the latter.

Along the valleys of both the Hell Gate and Bitter Root there is a great abundance of excellent timber—pine, hemlock, tamarack, or larch predominating. The numerous mountain rivulets tributary to the Bitter Root which run through the valley, afford excellent and abundant mill seats. The valley and mountain slopes are well timbered with an excellent growth of pine, which is equal in every respect to the well-known and noted pine of Oregon. Along the Bitter Root are also several fine flouring mills.

The great attraction of this region is its GOLD mines. The gold in Montana is found as in California, both in gulches and in quartz.

The Bannock or Grasshopper mines were discovered in July, 1862, and are situated on Grasshopper Creek, a tributary of the Jefferson fork of the Missouri, 385 miles north of Salt Lake City, and 280 south of Fort Benton.

The mining district at this point extends five miles down the creek from Bannock City, which is situated at the head of the gulch; while upon either side of the creek the mountains are intersected with gold-bearing quartz lodes, many of which have been found to be very rich.

Bannock City, the county seat of Boise county, and the most populous town in the Territory, is thought to be one of the best mining localities in this whole region. It is situated between two of the best mining streams in the territory, viz.: More's and Elk Creek, which empty into the Boise River, forty miles south of Bannock City.

The Centerville mines are six miles west of Bannock City. They are situated on Grimes' Creek, and are similar to those on Bannock City.

The Virginia City mines, take their name from Virginia City, the largest town in Eastern Montana. They are on Fairweather's Gulch, upon Alder Creek, one of the tributaries of the Stinking Water, a small stream that puts into the Jefferson Fork, about seventy miles northeast of Bannock.

"The mines here," says a late writer, "are unsurpassed in richness; not

a claim has been opened that does not pay good wages, while many claims yield the precious ore by the pound." Two lines of coaches run between this point and Bannock City.

The following were the prices of produce at Bannock, at the beginning of 1865, in gold:

Flour, \$25 per cwt.; Bacon, 30c. per lb.; Ham, 90c.; Fresh Steaks, 15 to 25c.; Potatoes, per lb., 25c.; Cabbage, per lb., 60c.; Coffee, 80c.; Sugar, 60c.; Fresh Butter, \$1.25; Hay, 10c. per lb., or \$30 per tun; Lumber, \$150 per thousand. Wages ruled at \$5 per day, for miners and common laborers, and \$6 to \$8 for mechanics. Female labor ranged from \$10 to \$15 per week. Washing from \$3 to \$6, by the dozen.

At these rates, it will be seen that carrying on agriculture by irrigation, which the want of rain compels, pays the producer well.

IDAHO TERRITORY.

IDAHO is an Indian word, signifying "*Gem of the mountains.*" It was formed in March, 1863, from the territories of Washington, Nebraska and Dakota. Its area then was 326,000 square miles; that is, seven times that of New York State. In 1864, it was reduced to about 90,000 square miles, on the creation of the territory of Montana. Its capital is Lewiston, near the Washington line on Lewis fork of Columbia River.

Its great attraction was its gold mines, the most important of which were lost to her when Montana was created.

The present gold mines of Idaho are in the northern part, on branches of the Columbia, Salmon and Clearwater Rivers.

"The Salmon River mines were the first to attract the gold-hunter. The gold obtained here is of rather an inferior quality, being worth only \$13 to \$15 an ounce. Florence City is the largest settlement in the Salmon River country, and the general depot for supplies.

"South of Salmon River is a large extent of country as yet wholly unexplored. On Clearwater River and its branches north of Salmon River, gold is found over a large extent of country, Elk City and Oro Fino being the principal centers of business and population."

DACOTAH TERRITORY.

DACOTAH, or more correctly *Dahkotah*, is the true name of the Sioux nation of Indians, and "signifies allied or joined together in friendly compact." The territory so named comprises the western part of the original Territory of Minnesota; and was excluded from its limits when, in 1858, Minnesota was erected into a state. It was organized into a territory in February, 1861. It extends, in extreme limits, N. and S. 450 miles, and E. and W. 200: N. latitude, $42^{\circ} 30'$ to 49° ; longitude, W. from Greenwich, 94° to 104° . It is bounded on the N. by the British Possessions, E. by Minnesota and a small part of Iowa, on the S. by Iowa, and also S. and partly on the W. by the Missouri River, separating it from the Territory of Nebraska.

The eastern part is, like Minnesota, covered with multitudes of small lakes and ponds. The largest of these are Red Lake, about 40 miles long and 20 broad, and Mini-wakan, or Devil's Lake, about 50 miles long by 10 broad. Lake Itasca, the source of the Mississippi, is on its eastern boundary. The Minnesota, emptying into the Mississippi, the Big Sioux and Jacques, affluents of the Missouri, and the Great Red River of the North, all take their rise in the high table lands of the interior.

The territory contains numerous salt lakes, and coal has been found. Capt. Jno. Pope, of the U. S. corps of topographical engineers, states that "Dacotah presents features differing but little from the region of prairie and table land west of the frontiers of Missouri and Arkansas, which is mainly devoid of timber. From this is to be excepted the western half of the valley of Red River and the valleys of the Big Sioux and the Rio Jacques, which are productive, and with the region inclosed contain arable and well timbered land sufficient for a small state." These valleys are productive in wheat of the best qualities. Population, in 1860, 4,839.

Pembina, the principal town of the territory, is some 360 miles, in an air line, N.W. of St. Paul, on the Red River of the North, just below the British line. It was settled, in 1812, by Scottish emigrants under Lord Selkirk, who obtained an extensive grant of land from the Hudson Bay Company. On the running of the boundary line, subsequently, Pembina, the southernmost point of the colony, was found to be just within the limits of the United States.

"The settlement—which contains about seven thousand inhabitants—is flourishing, and agriculture is prosecuted by the hardy settlers there with considerable success. The greater part of the inhabitants are half natives

and descendants of fur-traders and their servants, by native women. Formerly every summer, with a team of carts drawn by oxen, and loaded with pemmican, furs, etc., they came down to St. Pauls on a trading excursion, employing about six weeks in making the journey. Their singularly constructed carts, composed entirely of wood, without any tire, their peculiar dress, manners and complexion, render them an object of curiosity to those unfamiliar with the various shades of society intermediate between the savage and civilized."

THE INDIAN TERRITORY:

THE INDIAN TERRITORY is an extensive country lying west of Arkansas and north of Texas, and extending far into the western wilderness; and containing about 71,000 square miles. It has been allotted by the general government as the permanent residence of those Indian tribes who emigrate from the states east of the Mississippi. "It is about 450 miles long east and west, and from 35 to 240 miles in width north and south. Kansas lies on the north of this tract, Arkansas on the east, Texas on the south, and New Mexico and Texas on the west. In the north-western portion of the Indian Territory are the vast sandy, barren lands, known as the *Great American Desert*. Excepting this desolate region, the country is occupied by undulating plains and prairies, broken on the east by the mountain ridges, called the Ozark or Washita, which come in from Arkansas. Coal of an excellent quality abounds in the eastern part. The great southern overland mail route to California passes through it.

The Choctaws, the Chickasaws, the Cherokees, the Creeks, the Senecas, the Seminoles, and the Shawnees dwell in the east; while the central and western districts are occupied by the Comanches, the Osages, the Pawnees, the Kioways, the Arapahoes, and other tribes. The country is, besides, thickly inhabited by buffaloes, wild horses, antelopes, deer, prairie-dogs, and wild animals and wild birds of many names. Kansas and Nebraska were included in the Indian Territory until 1854."

The Indians within and near the borders of the territory, including the uncivilized tribes, it is supposed, number about 90,000. The civilized tribes are the Cherokees and Choctaws, each numbering 19,000; the Creeks numbering 25,000, and the Chickasaws, 16,000, all of whom emigrated from the cotton states east of the Mississippi. These four tribes have adopted republican forms of government, modeled after those of our states, with executive, legislative and judicial departments.

Their principal wealth is vested in stock. Any amount of fine grazing land is lying idle, and the climate is so mild that stock (except milch cows and working cattle) requires no feeding in winter. These people are, as a class, "well to do" in the world. Their houses are ordinarily of logs, but spacious and comfortable, and will compare favorably with those of south-western Missouri and Arkansas. Some of them are handsome frame buildings.

WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

WASHINGTON TERRITORY is the extreme north-western domain of the United States, and was formed by act of congress, in 1853, from the north part of Oregon Territory. Its early history is identified with and partially given in that of Oregon. Okonogan and Spokane, two of the trading posts of John Jacob Astor, were within its limits, and the Hudson's Bay Company had also numerous posts, and carried on extensive trading operations on its soil. In 1806, the British North-west Fur Company established a trading post on Frazer's Lake, in latitude 54° , which was the first settlement of any kind made by the Anglo-Saxon race west of the Rocky Mountains. About the year 1839, missions were established by Protestants and Catholics, among the Indians of the country.

Down to the period of the administration of President Polk, the United States government claimed latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$ as the northern boundary. Then the long dispute was settled by fixing upon the 49th parallel, and giving up Vancouver's Island to the British.

The Cascade range of mountains enters it from Oregon, and runs its entire length north and south. In a general description, the face of the country is mountainous, and resembles Oregon, excepting that the Blue Mountain range is more scattered north of the Columbia. Mount Olympus, the highest peak of the Coast range, is 8,197 feet high: several of those of the Cascade range are clothed in perpetual snow, among which are Mount St. Helen's, a volcanic peak, and Mount Rainer, each estimated at about 13,000 feet in altitude. The Pacific coast is not so abruptly mountainous as that of Oregon, and can be traveled almost its entire length on a beautiful sand beach. It shares with Oregon the grand scenery of the Columbia, which is its principal river, and its main branches rise within it. On the rivers are many falls of magnitude: one of these, the celebrated Snoqualmie, in about $47^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat., and $121^{\circ} 30'$ W. long., has a perpendicular fall of 260 feet. The mountain scenery of the country is surpassingly beautiful.

"The climate is similar to that of Oregon, with some variations caused by differ-

ence of latitude and local peculiarities. It is, however, in all parts of the territory, much milder than in the same parallels of latitudes east of the Rocky Mountains.

The soil of all the prairie lands, with the exception of those directly around Puget Sound, is exceedingly fertile. Those of the sound are of a sandy, gravelly nature, not readily cultivated, but producing enormous fir and cedar trees. The soil on the mountains is generally very rich; but the dense growth of forest deters the emigrant from attempting clearings on a large extent, as the fine, fertile plains and prairie offer far greater inducements. Fruit of various kinds, particularly apples, can be cultivated very readily, and in the greatest perfection. Indian corn does not thrive well, as the seasons are not hot enough; but wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes yield the most abundant crops, of the finest quality. The potatoes, in particular, are surpassingly fine. The wheat grown on the Columbia, called Oregon wheat, is known for its superior excellence.

Although the territory is a very mountainous country, yet there are many immense plains and prairies; and, by reference to the map, it will be seen that innumerable streams, like veins, permeate the whole region, and each of them, from the largest to the smallest, flows in its course through rich and fertile plains, of various sizes, lying between the mountains. Governor Stevens, in January, 1854, writing of the territory, says of the waters of Puget Sound, and the adjacent ones of Hood's Canal, Admiralty Inlet, and Fuca Straits, 'that their maritime advantages are very great, in affording a series of harbors almost unequalled in the world for capacity, safety, and facility of access, and they are in the immediate neighborhood to what are now the best whaling grounds of the Pacific. That portion of Washington Territory lying between the Cascade Mountains and the ocean, although equaling, in richness of soil and ease of transportation, the best lands of Oregon, is heavily timbered, and time and labor are required for clearing its forests and opening the earth to the production of its fruits. The great body of the country, on the other hand, stretching eastward from that range to the Rocky Mountains, while it contains many fertile valleys and much land suitable to the farmer, is yet more especially a grazing country—one which, as its population increases, promises, in its cattle, its horses, and, above all, its wool, to open a vast field to American enterprise. But, in the meantime, the staple of the land must continue to be the one which Nature herself has planted, in the inexhaustible forests of fir, of spruce, and of cedar. Either in furnishing manufactured timber, or spars of the first description for vessels, Washington Territory is unsurpassed by any portion of the Pacific coast.'

The internal improvements of Washington Territory are progressing as fast as can be expected in a new and sparsely-populated country, situate so remote from the general government. In 1853, Governor Isaac I. Stevens, the first governor of the territory, surveyed a route for a Northern Pacific Railroad, and discovered a pass near the sources of Maria's River, suitable for a railroad, estimated to be 2,500 feet lower than the south pass of Fremont. It is generally admitted that Governor Stevens' route is the best one for a railroad that has yet been discovered, although the great, and, in fact the principal objection urged against it is that it is too far north, and, consequently, will not suit the views nor accommodate the inhabitants of the more southern states and California.

There is no state in the Union that has so vast a communication by water as Washington Territory—the Columbia River on its south, the Pacific on the west, and the Straits of Fuca, Hood's Canal, Admiralty Inlet, and Puget Sound on the north. There is not a safer entrance from the ocean in the world than Fuca Straits; and the deep waters that flow through the whole of the inlets, bays, and sounds, enable ships of the largest class readily to approach Olympia.

Gold and silver quartz has recently been discovered in Cascade range, near Natchez Pass, in immense deposits.

Coal has been discovered of a good quality.

Olympia is the capital of Washington. Population of the territory, in 1863, 12,519.

UTAH TERRITORY.

UTAH derives its name from that of a native Indian tribe, the Pah-Utahs. It formed originally a part of the Mexican territory of Upper California, and was ceded to the United States by the treaty with Mexico, at the close of the Mexican war. In 1850 it was erected into a territory by Congress.

"A large part of Utah is of volcanic origin. It is supposed, from certain traditions and remains, to have been, many hundred years ago, the residence of the Aztec nation—that they were driven south by the volcanic eruptions which changed the face of the whole country. Eventually, they became the possessors of Mexico, where, after attaining great proficiency in the arts of life, they were finally overthrown by the Spaniards at the time of the conquest.

Utah was not probably visited by civilized man until within the present century. There were Catholic missionaries who may have just touched its California border, and the trappers and hunters employed by the fur companies. The first establishment in Utah was made by William H. Ashley, a Missouri fur-trader. In 1824, he organized an expedition which passed up the valley of the Platte River, and through the cleft of the Rocky Mountains, since called "*The South Pass*;" and then advancing further west, he reached the Great Salt Lake, which lies embosomed among lofty mountains. About a hundred miles south-east of this, he discovered a smaller one, since known as "Ashley's Lake." He there built a fort or trading post, in which he left about a hundred men. Two years afterward, a six-pound piece of artillery was drawn from Missouri to this fort, a distance of more than twelve hundred miles, and in 1828, many wagons, heavily laden, performed the same journey.

During the three years between 1824 and 1827, Ashley's men collected and sent to St. Louis, furs from that region of country to an amount, in value, of over \$180,000. He then sold out all his interests to Messrs. Smith, Jackson, and Sublette. These energetic and determined men carried on for many years an extensive and profitable business, in the course of which they traversed a large part of southern Oregon, Utah, California, and New Mexico west of the mountains. Smith was murdered in the summer of 1829, by the Indians north-west of Utah Lake. Ashley's Fort was long since abandoned,

Unfortunately, these adventurous men knew nothing of science, and but little information was derived from them save vague reports which greatly

excited curiosity; this was only increased by the partial explorations of Fremont.

In his second expedition, made in 1843, he visited the *Great Salt Lake*, which appears upon old Spanish maps as Lake Timpanogos and Lake Tegaya. Four years after, in 1847, the Mormons emigrated to Utah, and commenced the first regular settlement by whites. It was then an isolated region, nominally under the government of Mexico. They expected to found a Mormon state here, and rest in quiet far from the abodes of civilized man; but the results of the Mexican war, the acquirement of the country by the United States, with the discovery of gold in California, brought them on the line of emigration across the continent, and more or less in conflict with the citizens and general government.

Utah extended originally from the 37th to the 42d degrees of north latitude, and between the 107th and 120th degrees of west longitude, having a breadth of 300, and an average length, east and west, of 600 miles, containing an area of about 180,000 square miles. It now has 110,000 square miles only.

"The main geographical characteristic of Utah is, that anomalous feature in our continent, which is more Asiatic than American in its character, known as the Great Basin. It is about 500 miles long, east and west, by 275 in breadth, north and south, and occupies the greater part of the central and western portions of the territory. It is elevated near 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is shut in all around by mountains with its own system of lakes and rivers; and what is a striking feature, none of which have any connection with the ocean. The general character of the basin is that of a desert. It has never been fully explored, but so far as it has been, a portion of it is found to consist of arid and sterile plains, another of undulating table lands, and a third of elevated mountains, a few of whose summits are capped with perpetual snow. These range nearly north and south, and rise abruptly from a narrow base to a height of from 2,000 to 5,000 feet. Between these ranges of mountains are the arid plains, which deserve and receive the name of desert. From the snow on their summits and the showers of summer originate small streams of water from five to fifty feet wide, which eventually lose themselves, some in lakes, some in the alluvial soil at their base, and some in dry plains. Among the most noted of these streams is Humboldt's or Mary's River, well remembered by every California emigrant, down which he pursues his course for three hundred miles, until it loses itself in the ground, at a place called St. Mary's Sink, where its waters are of a poisonous character.

The *Great Salt Lake* and the Utah Lake are in this basin, toward its eastern rim, and constitute its most interesting feature—one a saturated solution of common salt—the other fresh—the Utah about one hundred feet above the Salt Lake, which is itself about 4,200 above the level of the sea; they are connected by Utah River—or, as the Mormons call it, the Jordan—which is forty-eight miles in length. These lakes drain an area of from ten to twelve thousand square miles.

The Utah is about thirty-five miles long, and is remarkable for the numerous and bold streams which it receives, coming down from the mountains on the south-east, all fresh water, although a large formation of rock-salt, imbedded in red clay, is found within the area on the south-east, which it drains. The lake and its affluents afford large trout and other fish in great numbers, which constitute the food of the Utah Indians during the fishing season. The Great Salt Lake has a very irregular outline greatly extended at time of melting snows. It is about seventy miles in length; both lakes ranging north and south, in conformity to the range of the mountains, and is remarkable for its predominance of salt. The whole lake water seems thoroughly saturated with it, and every evaporation of the water leaves salt behind. The rocky shores of the islands are whitened by the spray, which leaves salt on everything it touches, and a covering like ice forms over the water which the waves throw among the rocks. The shores of the lake, in the dry season, when the waters recede, and especially on the south side, are whitened with incrustations of fine white salt; the shallow arms of the lake, at the same time under a

slight covering of briny water, present beds of salt for miles, resembling softened ice, into which the horses' feet sink to the fetlock. Plants and bushes, blown by the wind upon these fields, are entirely incrustated with crystallized salt, more than an inch in thickness. Upon this lake of salt the fresh water received, though great in quantity, has no perceptible effect. No fish or animal life of any kind is found in it.

The Rio Colorado, with its branches, is about the only stream of note in Utah which is not within the Great Basin. The only valleys supposed to be inhabitable in the vast country in the eastern rim of the Great Basin and the Rocky Mountains, are the valleys of the Uintah and Green Rivers, branches of the Colorado, and whether even these are so, is extremely problematical. The country at the sources of this great river is incapable of supporting any population whatever.

The climate of Utah is milder and drier in general than it is in the same parallel on the Atlantic coast. The temperature in the Salt Lake Valley in the winter is very uniform, and the thermometer rarely descends to zero. There is but little rain in Utah, except on the mountains, from the 1st of May until the 1st of October; hence agriculture can only be carried on by irrigation.

In every portion of the territory where it has been attempted, artificial irrigation has been found to be indispensable; and it is confidently believed that no part of it, however fertile, will mature crops without it, except perhaps on some small patches on low bottoms. But limited portions, therefore, of even the most fertile and warmest valleys, can ever be made available for agricultural purposes, and only such as are adjacent to streams and are well located for irrigation. Small valleys surrounded by high mountains, are the most abundantly supplied with water, the streams being fed by melting snows and summer showers.

The greater part of Utah is sterile and totally unfit for agriculture, and is uninhabited and uninhabitable, except by a few trappers and some roaming bands of Indians, who subsist chiefly upon game, fish, reptiles, and mountain crickets. The general sterility of the country is mainly owing to the want of rain during the summer months, and partly from its being elevated several thousand feet above the level of the sea.

The whole country is almost entirely destitute of timber. The little which there is may be found on the side of the high, rocky mountains, and in the deep mountain gorges, whence issue the streams. On the table lands, the gently undulating plains and the isolated hills, there is none. There are, however, small groves of cotton-wood and box-elder on the bottoms of some of the principal streams.

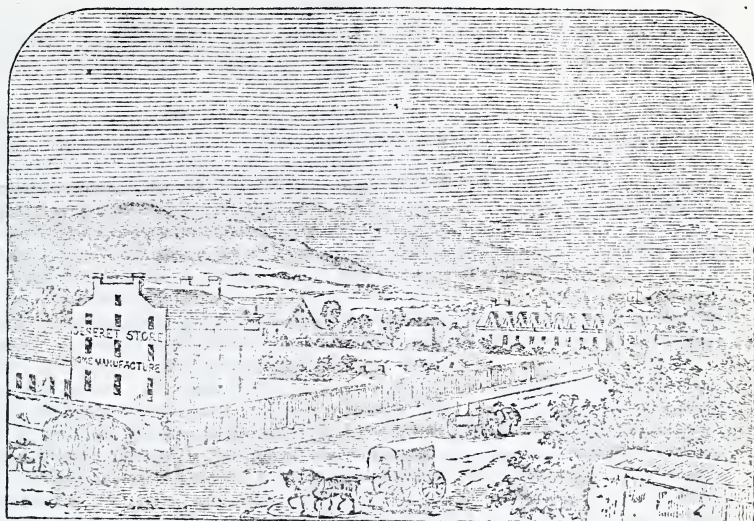
A species of artemisia, generally known by the name of wild sage, abounds in most parts of the country, where vegetation of any kind exists, but particularly where there is not warmth and moisture sufficient to produce grass.

The Great Salt Lake Valley is the largest known in the Great Basin, being about one hundred and twenty miles long, and from twenty to forty broad, but the Salt Lake occupies much of its northern portion. The surface of its center is level, ascending gently on either side toward the mountains. This valley is regarded as one of the healthiest portions of the globe; the air is very pure. Its altitude is forty three hundred feet above the level of the sea; and some of the mountains on the east of the valley are more than a mile and a quarter high, and covered with perpetual snow; while in the valley the thermometer frequently rises above one hundred degrees.

By means of irrigation, the Mormon valleys are made productive. Wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats and Indian corn are their agricultural products, and all the garden vegetables peculiar to the middle and western states are grown. Tobacco and sweet potatoes can be produced in limited quantities. The system of irrigation prevents rust or smut striking the crop, and renders it sure. The territory of the Mormons is a stock-raising country, and they are, to a great extent, a pastoral people. We find here that cereal anomaly, the bunch grass. It grows only on the bottoms of the streams, and on the table lands of the warmest and most fertile valleys. It is of a kind peculiar to cold climates and elevated countries, and is, we presume, the same as the *grama* of New Mexico. In May, when the other grasses start, this fine plant dries upon its stalk, and becomes a light yellow straw, full of flavor and nourishment. It continues thus through what are the dry months

of the climate until January, and then starts with a vigorous growth, like that of our own winter wheat in April, which keeps on until the return of another May. Whether as straw or grass, the cattle fatten on it the year round. The numerous little dells and sheltered spots that are found in the mountains are excellent sheep walks. Hogs fatten on a succulent bulb or tuber, called the seacoe or seegose root, which is highly esteemed as a table vegetable by the Mormons."

The population of Utah has been nearly stationary for many years, and is composed almost entirely of Mormons. Population of Utah, in 1860, was 50,000.



View in Salt Lake City.

The large block on the left contains the Church, Store, and Tithing Office, where one tenth of all the produce is contributed to the Church Fund. On the extreme right is the Harem of Brigham Young, the famous "Lion House," so called from the statues of lions in front. The Wasatch Mountains are seen in the back ground.

SALT LAKE CITY is pleasantly situated on a gentle declivity near the base of a mountain, about two miles east of the Utah outlet, or the River Jordan, and about twenty-two miles south-east of the Salt Lake. "It is nearly on the same latitude with New York City, and is, by air lines, distant from New York 2,100 miles; from St. Louis, 1,200; from San Francisco, 350; and from Oregon City and Santa Fe, each 600. During five months of the year it is shut out from all communication with the north, east, or west, by mountains rendered impassable from snow. Through the town runs a beautiful brook of cool, limpid water, called City creek. The city is laid out regularly, on an extensive scale; the streets crossing each other at right angles, and being each eight rods wide. Each lot contains an acre and a quarter of ground, and each block or square eight lots. Within the city are four public squares. The city and all the farming lands are irrigated by streams of beautiful water, which flow from the adjacent mountains. These streams have been, with great labor and perseverance, led in every direction. In the city, they flow on each side of the different streets, and their waters are let upon the inhabitants' gardens at regular periods, so likewise upon the extensive fields of grain lying to the south. The greater part of the houses which

had been built up to the close of 1850, were regarded as merely temporary; most of them were small but commodious, being, in general, constructed of adobe or sun-dried brick. Among the public buildings are a house for public worship, a council-house, a bath-house at the Warm Spring; and they are erecting another temple more magnificent than that they formerly had at Nauvoo. Public free-schools are established in the different wards into which the city is divided. East of the city a mile square is laid off for a State University."

Hon. John Cradlebaugh, late assistant judge of the Territory of Utah, gives this sketch of the Mormons, their origin, doctrines, practices, and crimes:

Extent of Mormonism.—The Mormon people have possessed themselves of this country, and although their history has been but a brief one, yet their progress has been so great as to attract the attention of the world. Although they have not existed more than the third of a century, yet we find that they have been enabled to encompass the globe itself with missionaries. Although they have existed but a few years, we find them rising from a single family to be now what they call a great nation. They claim to be a nation independent of all other nations. They have set up a church government of their own, and they desire no other government to rule over them.

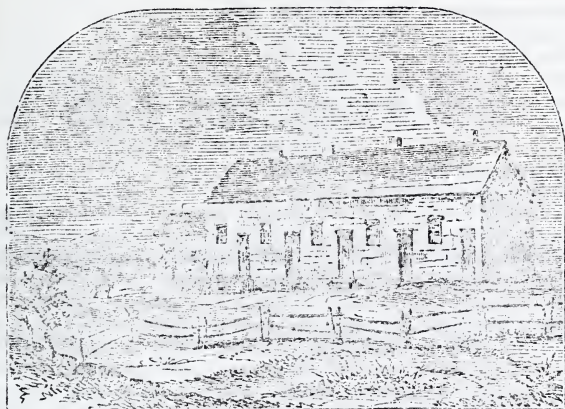
It becomes necessary to know what this Mormonism is, that has thus attracted these deluded people to that country, to seize this empire and to attempt to establish for themselves a government independent of the world.

Mormonism, in the view that I take of it, is a religious eccentricity, as well as one of the great monstrosities of the age. It is not the first, however, of the religious monstrosities and impositions that we have had. Other religious impositions have been invented by men expert in tricks. Knowledge and civilization go moving on at a slow pace, and yet make gradual progress; and every ray of light that is shed shows us the gross absurdity of these frauds in religion. The idols of wood and stone have fallen from the sacred places which they formerly occupied, to be trampled under the feet of their former worshippers, and the cunning devices of a more enlightened age have given way to a purer creed. The majority of the heathen practices of the dark ages have disappeared before an enlightened Christianity. But an epoch came when mankind were fast relapsing into a painful state of ignorance; and about that time arose that boldest and most successful of all imposters, Mohammed, who, incorporating old and cherished doctrines into a voluptuous creed, went abroad with his sword in one hand and the Koran in the other, conquering and to conquer. This was done when darkness reigned on the earth; but in this nineteenth century, favored as it is by the light of a true religion, distinguished as it is by its general knowledge, and refined as it is beyond all precedent and parallel, a religious imposture grosser than all its predecessors, is being successfully palmed off on mankind; not in the deserts of some unknown land; not in a secret corner of the earth; but in free America, where every man can worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, and under his own vine and fig tree.

Mormon Doctrines.—This grotesque, absurd, and monstrous system, thus openly paraded before the world, is Mormonism. It is a conglomeration of illy cemented creeds from other religions. It repudiates the celibacy imposed by the Catholic religion upon its priesthood, and takes instead the voluptuous imposition of the Mohammedan Church. It preaches openly that the more wives and children its men have in this world, the purer, and more influential and conspicuous they will be in the next; that his wives, his property, and his children will be restored to him, and even doubled to him at the resurrection. It adopts the use of prayers for the dead and baptism as parts of its creed. They claim to be favored with marvelous gifts, the power of speaking in tongues, of casting out devils, of curing the sick and healing the lame and the halt; they also claim to have a living prophet,

seer, or revelator; they recognize the Bible, but they interpret it for themselves, and hold that it is subject to be changed by new revelation, which they say supercedes old revelation. One of their doctrines is that of continued progression to ultimate perfection. They say that God was but a man who went on developing and increasing until he reached his present high capacity; and they teach that good Mormons will be equal to Him—in a word, that good Mormons will become

gods. Their elders teach the shedding of blood for the remission of sins; or, in other words, that if a Mormon apostatizes, that his throat shall be cut and his blood poured on the ground to save him from his sin. They also practice other most unnatural and revolting doctrines, such as are only carried out in polygamous countries. They hold that the prophet's revelations are binding on their consciences, and that they must obey him in all things. They



A MORMON HAREM.

claim to be the people peculiarly chosen of God, and have christened themselves "The Church of Jesus—the Latter Day Saints." They claim that Mormonism is to go on spreading until it overthrows all the nations of the earth; and that, if necessary, it shall be propagated by the sword; and that, in progress of time, all the world shall be subject to it. Jackson county, Missouri, whence they were driven for their great crimes, is called their Zion, and their prophets have prophesied that there shall the saints from throughout all the world be assembled, and from that Zion shall proceed a power that shall dethrone kings, subvert dynasties, and subjugate all the nations of the earth.

Origin.—This wretched sect had its origin in an eccentricity of a man named Spaulding, who had failed as a preacher and as a shopkeeper, and who thought he would write an historical novel. He had a smattering of Biblical knowledge, and he chose for his subject "the history of the lost tribes of Israel." The whole was supposed to be communicated by Indians, and the last of the series was named Mormon, representing that he had buried the book. It was a large, ponderous volume, dull, tedious and interminable, marked by ignorance and folly. Spaulding made many efforts to get it printed, but the work was so utterly flat, stupid and insipid, that no publisher would undertake to bring it before the world. Poor Spaulding at length went to his grave, and his manuscript remained a neglected roll in the possession of his widow.

But now arose Joe Smith, more ready to live by his wits than by the labor of his hands. This Smith early in life manifested a turn for pious frauds. He had been engaged in several wrestling matches with the devil, and had been conspicuous for his wonderful experiences in religion at certain revivals. He announced that he had dug up the book of Mormon, that taught the true religion, and this was none other but the poor Spaulding manuscript, which he had purloined from the house of the widow. In his unscrupulous hands the manuscript of Spaulding was designed to cause an august apostacy; he made it the basis of Mormonism.

Polygamy Introduced.—Before the death of Smith, he had made polygamy a dogma of the Mormon creed, and made it known to a few of the leaders, and he and they proceeded to put it to practice. It was only after they had placed the desert and the Rocky Mountains between them and civilization that they confessed

it. Then they not only confessed it, but openly and boldly advocated it as a part of the religion of Utah. Polygamy then is now the rule, monogamy is the exception to the rule among them. This doctrine is preached from the pulpit—it is taught everywhere.

Education and Habits.—The little education the children get consists in preparing them for the reception of polygamy. To prepare the women for the reception of the revolting practice it is necessary to brutalize them by destroying their modesty. The sentiment of love is ridiculed, cavalier gallantry and attentions are laughed at, the emblematic devices of lovers and the winning kindness that with us they dote on are hooted at in Utah. The lesson they are taught, and that is inculcated above all others, is "increase and multiply," in order that Zion may be filled. The young people are familiarized to indecent exposures of all kinds; the Mormons call their wives their cattle.

A man is not considered a good Mormon that does not uphold polygamy by precept and example, and he is a suspected Mormon that does not practice it. The higher the man is in the church the more wives he has. Brigham Young and Heber Kimball are supposed to have each between fifty and a hundred. The reverend Mormon bishops, apostles, and the presidents of states have as many as they desire, and it is a common thing to see these hoary-headed old Turks surrounded by a troop of robust young wives. The common people take as many as they can support, and it is not uncommon to see a house of two rooms inhabited by a man, his half-dozen of wives, and a proportionate number of children, like rabbits in a warren, and resembling very much the happy family that we read of—the prairie dog, the owl, and the rabbit. Incest is common. Sometimes the same man has a daughter and her mother for wives at once; some have as wives their own nieces, and Aaron Johnson, of Springville, one of the most influential men in his parts, has in his harem of twelve women no less than five of his brothers' daughters. One Watts, a Scotchman, who is one of the church reporters, is married to his own half-sister.

The ill-assorted children—the offspring of one father and many mothers—run about like so many wild animals. The first thing they do, after learning vulgarity, is to wear a leather belt with a butcher-knife stuck in it; and the next is to steal from the Gentiles; then to ride animals; and as soon as they can, "by hook or by crook," get a horse, a pair of jingling Mexican spurs and a revolver, they are then Mormon-cavaliers, and are fit to steal, rob, and murder emigrants. The women and girls are coarse, masculine and uneducated, and are mostly drafted from the lowest stages of society. It is but seldom you meet handsome or attractive women among them.

The foreign element largely predominates in Utah. The persons emigrating to the territory are generally from the mining, manufacturing and rural districts of England. The American portion of the Mormons are generally shrewder than the rest, and are chiefly from the New England states. Most of these men are no doubt fugitives from justice, and most of them are bankrupt in both fortune and character.

The three presidents of the church, or rather the president, Brigham Young, and his two council, Kimball and Grant, are all Americans; eleven of the twelve apostles are Americans. The foreigners are generally hewers of wood and the drawers of water for the church and its dignitaries. The church is everything. It is not only an ecclesiastical institution, but it is a political engine; it not only claims to control Mormons in their spiritual matters, but to dictate to them as to the disposition of their temporal affairs. The church, by its charter, can receive, hold or sell any amount of property; the charter provides for one trustee, and twelve assistant trustees, and Brigham Young is trustee, president of the church, prophet, seer, revelator, and, the commission of the United States to the contrary notwithstanding, he is the real governor of the territory. All Mormons are required to yield to him implicit obedience.

Each Mormon has to pay into the church one tenth part of all he produces, so that if a good Mormon sow bears ten pigs, one is a pious pig, because it belongs to the church. To collect these tithes officers have to be appointed, and to gather the results together a great central depot has to be maintained, and it is situated

in Great Salt Lake City, within Brigham's own walls; and the corn, butter, eggs, and all sorts of produce that is conveyed there and stored would spoil unless it was disposed of; and so we find that they need stores, and in Salt Lake City we find an enormous store, with the sign "Deseret Store." So it is, the church is a trader.

The Angelic Host.—Connected with the Mormon church is a band of men known as "the Danites," or "the avenging angels." This band is composed of the boldest of the Mormon ruffians. They are bound together by dreadful oaths; they are the executioners of the church, carrying out its vengeance against apostates and offenders against the church discipline; and all church enemies are dealt with by these men, generally in a secret and terrible manner. None but God, Brigham Young and themselves know the names of their victims, or the number.

Missions and Missionaries.—The Mormon Church is recruited by means of missionaries yearly sent out in large numbers throughout the earth, to preach and propagate the Mormon religion. These missionaries are not selected, as are the missionaries of other sects, for their piety and devotion, or for their general fitness, but as a punishment for some offense against the discipline of the church. The doctrine is that they are good enough to go into the world, for if they send good men they will not believe them, and on that account they send their bad men, off as teachers and missionaries.

The missionaries are usually supported by voluntary contributions raised from the ignorant proselytes that they make. They picture Utah as a paradise, the Mormons as saints, and Brigham Young as their prophet; they promise their prophet will heal the sick, restore sight to the blind, and comfort to the afflicted; to the wealthy they promise wealth, and preferment is for the ambitious, while social standing is to be given to the degraded of both sexes, and polygamy is the paradise of all.

Receiving Proselytes.—These missionaries, when sent on missions, if successful, are commanded to bring their proselytes with them to Zion. They are generally taken in large trains, and the arrival of one of these emigrant trains is hailed as a great event. Women that are young and pretty are greedily caught up by the apostles and dignitaries to swell their harems.

The Foreign Element.—As I have said, the Mormons are chiefly foreigners; and rude, ignorant foreigners they are. They have not the first conceptions of their duties to our government, or of their duties as American citizens. They come to Zion, but they do not come to America. What do they care for our government or for our people? The first lesson taught them is to hate our people for their oppression, and to hate all other people for they are Gentiles. They are next sworn to support the church and the government established in Utah, and bear an eternal hostility against every other government on the face of the earth. Their next lesson is to revere Brigham Young as both the religious and political head and ruler. Their allegiance is alone due to him; he tells them they are separate and distinct from all other nations—made up from many nations; and he said but the other day, "we have been looked upon as a nation by our neighbors, independent of all other people on the face of the earth, and in their dealings they have dealt with us as such." He tells them the present connection of Utah with the United States is only nominal, and it is barely permitted by God until things shall be fitted for the universal establishment of Mormon ascendancy.

All these things considered, is it to be wondered at that the Mormons are disloyal to this government, and that treason should insolently rear its crest in Utah? The ignorant of the Mormons do not know what treason is. They obey their leaders, and these leaders are alone responsible for their acts. If Brigham Young, his counselors and bishops, and twelve apostles, and his generals had been seized and hung, you would never more have heard of treason in Utah; but while the Mormon captains were at the head of their troops, while the Danites were armed with their butcher knives, and while the prophet hurled anathemas against the president, the government, and the people of the United States, and while the Mormon people were in arms against the people of the United States, came a free pardon to all the traitors, big and little.

Three thousand of the federal troops were sent [in 1858] to Utah, and they have been kept there at a great expense to the government. The government has not

only refrained from punishing, but it has, through the vast amounts expended for the troops, which went into the Mormon coffers, enriched and built up the territory. When the troops went to Utah, the Mormons were naked and almost starving, poor and wrangling; but now they are clothed, and money circulates freely among them. Treason is lucky, and traitors prosper. Not only are they freely pardoned, but they are rewarded with pockets full of gold. When treason is thus dealt with, traitors will be numerous indeed.

An Irrepressible Conflict.—Attempts to administer the laws of the United States have been made by the three sets of the United States judges. These experiments have all proved to be failures. The concurrent testimony of all the judges is that the Federal constitution and laws can not be successfully administered. There is a complete repugnance and antagonism between our institutions and the Mormon institutions. The church, through its rulers, claims to supervise the spiritual and temporal relations of the people. Whether it be in the place of business, in the jury-box, on the witness stand, on the judge's bench, or in the legislative chair, the Mormon is bound to obey the heads of the church. If the constitution of the United States, or the organic law of the territory conflicts, the constitution is treated as a nullity; if the laws of the United States contravene the ordinances of Utah, the law is disregarded. The will of the prophet is the supreme law in Utah.

Mormon grand and petit juries, on being impaneled, would go through the forms of business, but do nothing, while murder and other felonies abounded. When warrants are issued for the parties accused, they can not be arrested, for the entire church and the whole community united in concealing and protecting the offender. Witnesses are prevented by church orders from appearing before the grand jury, or are forcibly detained. Grand juries refuse to find bills upon testimony the most conclusive, for most of the crimes have been committed by the order of the church; and to expose them would be to expose and punish the church and the functionaries of the church.

The most noted of all the atrocities committed by the Mormons was the "*Mountain Meadow Massacre.*" This event occurred in the autumn of 1857, when about 140 emigrants, inoffensive, peaceful men, women and children, on their way overland from Arkansas to California, were waylaid by the Danite band of Mormons and their Indian allies, and butchered in cold blood. Some of the little children were spared, and afterward recovered from the Mormons; and from their lips these particulars were gathered. A correspondent of *Harpers' Weekly*, for August 13, 1859, presents this narrative, which is substantially true, and otherwise indubitably corroborated:

"A train of Arkansas emigrants, with some few Missourians, said to number forty men, with their families, were on their way to California, through the Territory of Utah, and had reached a series of grassy valleys, by the Mormons called the Mountain Meadows, where they remained several days recruiting their animals. On the night of Sept. 9, not suspecting any danger, as usual they quietly retired to rest, little dreaming of the dreadful fate awaiting and soon to overtake them. On the morning of the 10th, as, with their wives and families, they stood around their camp-fires passing the congratulations of the morning, they were suddenly fired upon from an ambush, and at the first discharge fifteen of the best men are said to have fallen dead or mortally wounded. To seek the shelter of their *corral* was but the work of a moment, but there they found but limited protection.

The encampment, which consisted of a number of tents and a *corral* of forty wagons and ambulances, lay on the west bank of, and eight or ten yards distant from, a large spring in a deep ravine, running southward; another ravine, also, branching from this, and facing the camp on the south-west; overlooking them on the north-west, and within rifle-shot, rises a large mound commanding the *corral*, upon which parapets of stone, with loop-holes, have been built. Yet another ravine, larger and deeper, faces them on the east, which could be entered without exposure from the south and far end. Having crept into these shelters in the darkness of the night, the cowardly assailants fired upon their unsuspecting victims,

thus making a beginning to the most brutal butchery ever perpetrated upon this continent.

Surrounded by superior numbers, and by an unseen foe, we are told the little party stood a siege within the *corral* of five or seven days, sinking their wagon wheels in the ground, and during the darkness of night digging trenches, within which to shelter their wives and children. A large spring of cool water bubbled up from the sand a few yards from them, but deep down in the ravine, and so well protected that certain death marked the trail of all who dared approach it. The wounded were dying of thirst; the burning brow and parched lip marked the delirium of fever; they tossed from side to side with anguish; the sweet sound of the water, as it murmured along its pebbly bed, served but to heighten their keenest suffering. But what was this to the pang of leaving to a cruel fate their helpless children! Some of the little ones, who though too young to remember in after years, tell us that they stood by their parents, and pulled the arrows from their bleeding wounds.

Long had the brave band held together; but the cries of the wounded sufferers must prevail. For the first time, they are (by four Mormons) offered their lives if they will lay down their arms, and gladly they avail themselves of the proffered mercy. Within a few hundred yards of the *corral* faith is broken. Disarmed and helpless, they are fallen upon and massacred in cold blood. The savages, who had been driven to the hills, are again called down to what was denominated the 'job,' which more than savage brutality had begun.

Women and children are now all that remain. Upon these, some of whom had been violated by the Mormon leaders, the savage expends his hoarded vengeance. By a Mormon who has now escaped the threats of the Church we are told that the helpless children clung around the knees of the savages, offering themselves as slaves; but with fiendish laughter at their cruel tortures, knives were thrust into their bodies, the scalp torn from their heads, and their throats cut from ear to ear."

Beside Salt Lake City, the other principal Mormon settlements are *Fillmore City*, the capital, *Brownsville*, *Provo*, *Ogden*, *Manti*, and *Parovan*.

NEW MEXICO TERRITORY.

NEW MEXICO is older than any English settlement in North America. It was a Spanish province in the century before the cavaliers had landed at Jamestown, and the Puritans had trod the snow-clad rock of Plymouth. In 1530, Nuno de Guzman, president of Mexico or New Spain, had in his service an Indian, a native of a country called Tejos or Texas, probably the present Texas, who informed him that when a boy he used to accompany his father, a merchant, on trading expeditions to a people in a country in the far interior, when the latter, in exchange for handsome feathers to ornament their heads, obtained great quantity of gold and silver; that, on one occasion, he had seen seven large towns, in which were entire streets occupied by people working in precious metals. That to get there, it was necessary to travel forty days through a wilderness, where nothing was to be obtained excepting short grass, and then penetrate into the interior of the country by keeping due north. Fired by these reports, Guzman organized an army of 400 Spaniards and 20,000 Indians, to penetrate this land of gold. He started from Mexico and went as far as Culiacan, the limit of his government, when the obstacles were such, in passing the mountains beyond, that his people deserted in great numbers. Moreover, he heard that his personal enemy, Hernando Cortez, was returning to Mexico, loaded with titles and favors. He gave up the expedition, and was soon after thrown into prison; and the Tejos Indian died.

In 1528, Pamphilo Narvaez, the unfortunate rival of Hernando Cortez, being appointed governor of Florida, set sail from St. Domingo with 400 men in five ships, for that coast. The expedition was tragic in its results. Soon after discovering the mouth of the Mississippi, all had perished but three; some from hunger, some by shipwreck, and some by the hostility of the natives.

"There only survived Cabeza de Vaca, boatmaster, Esteva Dorantes, an Arabian negro, and Castillo Maldonado. At the end of eight years, these three men reached Mexico, having traversed on foot the American continent from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean. They related their adventures, declared that they had met with Indian tribes, some of whom cultivated maize, while others lived on fish and the produce of the chase; that they had heard of large towns with lofty houses containing many stories, and situated in the same direction as those spoken of by the Tejos Indian."

Mendoza, the viceroy of New Spain, had these three travelers brought before him, and communicated the information they gave him to Francisco Vasquez Coronado, governor of the province of Culiacan, the chief town of which, Culiacan, was 68 miles west of Mexico. In March, 1539, Coronado sent forward an exploring expedition under Father Marcos, in company with two other monks, the negro Esteva above spoken of, and some friendly Indians.

As he journeyed along, Father Marcos met entire populations, who received him with pleasure, and presented him with provisions and flowers. He passed into the valley of the Sonora. "The inhabitants of this valley were numerous and intelligent; the women wore petticoats of tanned deer-skin. Every morning the caciques ascended little eminences, and, for above an hour, would indicate aloud what each was to do during the day. At their religious ceremonies they stuck arrows around their temples, resembling in this the Zunis of the present day, who sometimes stick them round their altars and tombs. Father Marcos found, on the borders of this desert, other Indians, who were greatly surprised to see him, for they had not the slightest idea of the Christians. Some of them would try to touch his garments, and would call him *Soyota*, which signifies, Man come down from heaven. Those Indians told him that, should he continue his route, he would soon enter a very extensive plain, full of large towns, which were inhabited by people clad in cotton, wearing gold rings and earrings, and making use of little blades of the same metal to scrape the perspiration off their bodies.

Although the information given by Father Marcos is rather vague, and though it is scarcely possible to state precisely the route he followed, or to indicate the geographical positions of the countries he passed through, it is probable that the plain here spoken of is that of the Rio de Las Casas Grande, situated 150 miles east of the Rio Sonora, which is to this day all covered with imposing ruins, reminding one of handsome and populous cities."

After a few days march, Father Marcos arrived at Vacapa, now known as Magdalena, in Sonora, near the American line, a short distance below Tubac, Arizona. Here Father Marcos remained to rest himself, among a friendly people; but finding the negro, Esteva, was abusing hospitality, by misconducting himself toward the native women, he sent him forward to make discoveries and report. Four days afterward, the negro dispatched to Marcos an Indian messenger, who related wonderful things of a large town, called Cibola, known in the present day as Zuni, and westward of Santa Fe. "According to the fashion of his tribe, the messenger's face, breast, and arms, were painted. Those Indians, whom the Spaniards called *Pintados*, lived on the frontiers of the seven towns forming the kingdom of Cibola; their descendants, now called Papagos and Pimas, still reside in the same country, which extends from the valley of Santa Cruz to the Rio Gila. Cibola, the first of the seven towns and capital of the kingdom of that name, was situated thirty days' journey from Vacapa. The *Pintados* said they often went there, and were employed in tilling the ground, and received for their wares turquoises and tanned hides.

An Indian of this town told Father Marcos, that 'Cibola was a great city, densely peopled, with a great number of streets and squares; that in some quarters there were very large houses, with ten stories, where the chieftains assembled, at certain times of the year, to discuss public affairs. The doors and fronts of those houses were adorned with turquoises. The inhabitants

had white skin, like the Spaniards, and wore wide cotton tunics that reached to their feet. These garments were fastened round the neck by means of a button, and were ornamented at the waist with a belt studded with very fine turquoises. Over those tunics some wore excellent cloaks, and others very richly wrought cow-hides.' The same Indian added: 'that toward the south-east, there existed a kingdom called Marata, with large populations and considerable towns, the houses of which had several stories; that these peoples were continually at war with the sovereign of the seven towns; and that, in the direction of the south-west, on the Rio Verde, was another kingdom, called Totontec, which was as wealthy as it was densely peopled, and whose inhabitants were dressed in fine cloth.' Although these narratives were exaggerated, it is not less a fact that all those countries were thickly peopled, intersected with roads, and studded with towns."

Having rested himself, Father Marcos pushed forward to rejoin his negro, and was everywhere welcomed by the natives until he had reached, on the 9th of May, the last desert that separated him from Cibola. He there had stopped to dine at a farm house, when he was astonished by the entrance of Esteva's companions, covered with perspiration, faint and trembling from fatigue and fear. He reported that Esteva had been imprisoned, and then killed by the people of Cibola, together with several of his Indian followers. The negro, probably, had been guilty of some misconduct. Marcos, in consternation, took the back track to Culiacan.

"Captain-General Vasquez Coronado, encouraged by the accounts given by Father Marcos, and hoping to discover new territories, at once organized in New Spain a little army, which assembled at Compostella, and on the day following Easter, 1540, he put himself at the head of his troops, composed of 150 horsemen, 200 archers, and 800 Indians. Having reached Culiacan, the army halted to take rest. At the end of a fortnight, Coronado moved forward, accompanied by fifty horsemen, a few foot soldiers, and his best friends, among whom was Father Marcos. The command of the remainder of the troops was confided to Don Tristan d'Arellano, with orders to leave fifteen days after, and to follow the same route as the captain-general.

After a month of fatigue and of privations of all kinds, Vasquez Coronado arrived at Chichilticale. This name, which signifies Red Town, was given to this locality because a large house of that color was to be seen there, which was inhabited by an entire tribe that came from Cibola, where the last desert begins. At this place the Spaniards lost several horses, and even some men, from want of food. Nevertheless, encouraged by their chief, they continued their march, and, a fortnight after they had left Chichilticale, they arrived within twenty-six miles of Cibola. They saw for the first time the natives of this singular kingdom; but the latter immediately took to flight, spreading the alarm throughout the country by means of great fires which they kindled on the high mountains—a custom in use to this day among the tribes of New Mexico.

Next day, Coronado came within sight of Cibola; the inhabitants of the province had all assembled and awaited the Spaniards with a steady attitude. Far from accepting the proposals of peace which were offered to them, they threatened the interpreters with death. The Spaniards then, crying out, 'San Jago! San Jago!' attacked the Indians with impetuosity, and notwithstanding a vigorous resistance, Coronado entered the town of Cibola as conqueror."

The remainder of the troops, under d'Arellano, after a march of 975 miles by a different route, in which they crossed many rivers flowing into the California Gulf, rejoined the main army at Cibola. On their way they founded the town of San Hieronymo, and in that vicinity found Indian agricultural tribes who tamed eagles, as is yet the custom among some tribes of New Mexico.

Coronado now sent Alvarado, his lieutenant, to conquer the province of Tiguex, on the Rio Grande, which he subdued after a campaign of fifty days. "It con-

tained twelve towns governed by a council of old men. The whole community helped to construct each house; the women made the mortar and built up the walls, and the men brought the wood and prepared the timbers. Underneath the houses and the court-yards were subterraneous stoves, or drying-places, paved with large polished flagstones. In the middle was a furnace on which they threw, from time to time, a handful of thyme, which was sufficient to keep up an intense heat there, so that one felt as if in a bath. The men spent a considerable part of their time in those places; but the women could not enter there, except to carry food to their husbands or sons. The men spun, wove, and attended to the tillage of their grounds; the women occupied themselves with the care of their children and household affairs; they were the mistresses of the house and kept it remarkably clean. In the large houses, each family had several rooms; one served as a sleeping-room, another as a kitchen, and a third for the purpose of grinding wheat. In the latter was an oven and three large stones; three women would seat themselves before these stones; the first would crush the grain, the second bruise it, and the third pulverize it completely. While they were thus employed, a man, seated at the door, played on a kind of bagpipes, and the women worked to measure, all three singing together, and marking the rhythm by striking with their tools the wheat they were grinding."

The young girls went wholly naked during even the most severe weather, and were not allowed to cover themselves until they were married. The object of this was that their shame might be exposed in case they misbehaved—a kind of a guard to chastity. "The young people could only enter the married state with the permission of the old men who governed the town. The young man had then to spin and weave a mantle; when completed, the girl who was destined to become his bride was brought to him; he wrapped the mantle round her shoulders and she thus became his wife.

From Tiguex, the Spaniards went to Cicuye—now called Pecos—which they also subdued. From thence, Coronado started for Quivira, with a few men chosen among his best soldiers, postponing, until the following spring, the conquest of the whole province. In 1542, the Spaniards found themselves masters of almost all New Mexico, whose center was formed by the province of Tiguex, around which were grouped seventy-one towns distributed among fourteen provinces, viz: Cibola, which contained seven towns; Tucayan, seven; Acuco, one; Tiguex, twelve; Cutahaco, eight; Quivix, seven; the Snowy Mountains, seven; Ximena, three; Cicuye, one; Hemes, seven; Aguas Calientes, three; Yuque-yunque, six; Braba, one, and Chia, one. Besides these seventy-one towns, there were many others scattered outside this circle; as also several tribes living in tents."

In April, 1543, Coronado returned with his followers to Culiacan. "Juan de Padilla, of the order of Saint Francis, preferred remaining at Quivira to preach the gospel to the Indians, and became a martyr. Brother Luis, of the same order, went to Cicuye, but was never more heard of. Such was the end of this expedition, which, instead of having a favorable result for the Spaniards, only tended to arouse against them the profound antipathy of the natives, who had been very ill-treated by the conquerors.

In 1581, a band of adventurers, commanded by Francisco de Leyva Bonillo, took possession of part of the province of Tiguex, and finding its productions, riches, and inhabitants very like those of Mexico, they called it New Mexico."*

"In the year 1595, Don Juan de Onate de Zacatecas, at the head of a band of two hundred soldiers, established the first legal colony in the province, over which he was established as governor. He took with him a number of Catholic priests to establish missions among the Indians, with power sufficient to promulgate the gospel at the point of the bayonet, and administer baptism by the force of arms.

The colony progressed rapidly; settlements extended in every quarter; and, as tradition relates, many valuable mines were discovered and worked. The poor In-

* Abridged from Domenech's *Seven Years' Residence in the Deserts of North America*. The Abbe Domenech derived this history mainly from the "Narrative of the Expedition to Cibola; by Pedro de Castaneda Nagera." He was in Coronado's army, and this narrative was published in Paris in 1837.

dians were enslaved, and, under the lash, were forced to most laborious tasks in the mines, until goaded to desperation. In the summer of 1680, a general insurrection of all the tribes and *Pueblos* took place throughout the province. General hostilities having commenced, and a large number of Spaniards massacred all over the province, the Indians laid siege to the capital, Santa Fe, which the governor was obliged to evacuate, and retreat south three hundred and twenty miles, where the refugees then founded the town of El Paso del Norte. For ten years the country remained in possession of the Indians, when it was reconquered by the Spaniards. In 1698, the Indians rose, but the insurrection was soon quelled. After this they were treated with more humanity, each pueblo being allowed a league or two of land, and permitted to govern themselves. Their rancorous hatred for their conquerors, however, never entirely subsided; yet no further outbreak occurred until 1837. In that year a revolution took place, by which the government of the country was completely overthrown, and most atrocious barbarities committed by the insurgents, including the Pueblo Indians. The governor, Perez, was savagely put to death—his head cut off and used as a football by the insurgents in their camp. The ex-governor, Abrew, was butchered in a more barbarous manner. His hands were cut off; his tongue and eyes were pulled out; his enemies, at the same time, taunting him with opprobrious epithets. The next season Mexican authority was again established over the province."

The first *American* who ever crossed the desert plains, intervening between New Mexico and the settlements on the Mississippi River, was one James Pursley. While wandering over the wild and then unexplored regions west of the Mississippi, he fell in with some Indians near the head-waters of the Platte River, in the Rocky Mountains, whom he accompanied, in 1803, to Santa Fe, where he remained several years. In 1804, a merchant of Kaskaskia, named Morrison, having heard by the trappers, through the Indians, of this isolated province, dispatched a *French Creole*, named La Lande, with some goods, up the Platte, with directions to make his way to Santa Fe. La Lande never returned to his employer, to account for the proceeds of his adventure, but settled in Santa Fe, grew rich by trading, and died some 20 years after. In 1806, the celebrated Captain Pike visited this country: his exciting descriptions, as given in his narrative, roused the western country, and eventually led to the overland trade, by caravans, with western Missouri, known as the Santa Fe trade, which finally grew into an immense business, employing an army of wagoners, and amounting in annual value to four or five millions of dollars. Santa Fe was not entirely the consumer of these importations, but rather the depot from whence they were distributed to Chihuahua and other portions of northern Mexico.

When Texas achieved her independence she included New Mexico within the statutory limits of the republic, although Santa Fe had never been conquered or settled by Texans. A desert or uninhabited country of 600 miles intervened between Austin, the Texan capital, and Santa Fe. The Texans wished to divert the overland trade which was going on between the Missourians and the New Mexicans to their country, and their secretary of war proposed, as a preparatory step, the construction of a military road from Austin to Santa Fe. In the spring of 1841, extensive preparations were made in Texas for an armed visit to Santa Fe, the objects being to induce the New Mexicans to acknowledge the right of Texas to complete jurisdiction over them, and to open a trade with the people. On the 20th of June, 270 armed Texans, under Gen. Hugh M'Leod, started from Brushy creek, near Austin, en route for Santa Fe. This expedition, known as the "Santa Fe expedition," was unfortunate in its results. The up-shot of it was, that they encountered great hardships on the deserts, and were finally, when in a half starved condition, near San Miguel, induced by treachery to surrender

to the Mexicans under Armijo, governor of New Mexico. Some few were shot, but the great body of them, to the number of 187, were sent to Mexico, and thrown into the prisons of Santiago, Puebla and Perote.

In 1846, at the commencement of the war with Mexico, the army of the west was organized, to conquer New Mexico and California. This army was composed of a mounted regiment of Missourians, and a battalion each of infantry, dragoons, and light artillery. After a fifty days' march from Fort Leavenworth, of nearly 900 miles, they entered Santa Fe on the 18th of August.

"On their arrival, the American commander, General Kearney, in accordance with his directions, proclaimed himself governor of New Mexico. 'You are now,' said he, 'American citizens; you no longer owe allegiance to the Mexican government.' The principal men then took the oath of allegiance to the United States, and whoever was false to this allegiance, the people were told, would be punished as traitors. It was questioned whether the administration had not transcended its powers in thus annexing a territory to the Union without the permission of congress.

General Kearney, having appointed Charles Bent governor of New Mexico, on the 25th of September, took a small force with him and proceeded overland to California. Col. Price arrived soon after at Santa Fe with recruits. The Navajo Indians having commenced hostilities against the New Mexicans, 'new inhabitants of the United States,' Col. Doniphan, who had been left in command, set out westward with the Missouri regiment to make peace with them. Winter was fast approaching, and after suffering incredible hardships in crossing the mountains, poorly clad as they were, among snows and mountain storms, they finally accomplished their object. Capt. Reid, of one of the divisions of thirty men, volunteered to accompany Sandoval, a Navajo chief, five days through the mountain heights, to a grand gathering of the men and women of the tribe. They were completely in the power of the Indians, but they won their hearts by their gayety and confidence. Most of them had never seen a white man. Reid and his companions joined the dance, sung their country's songs, and, what pleased the Navajoes most, interchanged with them their costume. On the 22d of November, a treaty was made in form, by which the three parties, Americans, New Mexicans and Navajoes, agreed to live in perpetual peace.

By the middle of December, Col. Doniphan, leaving Col. Price in command at Santa Fe, commenced his march with his regiment south to Chihuahua, and on his route met and defeated superior forces of the enemy at Bracito, and at the Sacramento Pass.

In the meantime, the New Mexicans secretly conspired to throw off the yoke. Simultaneously, on the 19th of January, in the valley of Taos, massacres occurred at Fernandez, when were cruelly murdered Governor Bent, Sheriff Lee, and four others; at Arroyo Hondo, five Americans were killed, and a few others in the vicinity. Col. Price, on receiving the intelligence, marched from Santa Fe, met and defeated the insurrectionists in several engagements in the valley, with a loss of about three hundred. The Americans lost in killed and wounded about sixty. Fifteen of the insurrectionists were executed."

New Mexico was ceded to the United States by the treaties with Mexico of 1848 and of 1854. The cession of 1854 included that narrow strip of territory south of the Gila and west of the Rio Grande, known as the "Gadsden Purchase," or Arizona. In 1850, a territorial government was established over New Mexico.

The present American territory of New Mexico comprises but a small part of the original Spanish province of that name. This territory, considered as a whole, "is a region of high table lands, crossed by mountain ranges, and barren to the last degree." It has scarce a single water communication of consequence with the rest of the world. The famous



The Giant Cactus.

Rio Grande is shallow, full of sand bars, and at times almost too low to float an Indian canoe. Many of the streams run in deep, frightful chasms, down which it is impossible, for days of travel, to penetrate. There is not enough fertile land ever to support any but a slight agricultural population, and very little timber excepting the *mesquit*—a thorny, disagreeable tree, that does most of its growing underground: its roots being multitudinous, twisting and burrowing in all directions, and of no use but for fuel. Beside this is the *cactus*, in many varieties, that shown in the engraving being confined within narrow lines of latitude. *Mescal*, a kind of whisky, of a most pungent, acrid flavor, is made from some varieties of this plant.

"The climate of New Mexico is unsurpassingly pure and healthy. A sultry day is very rare. The summer nights are cool and pleasant. The winters are long, but uniform, and the atmosphere of an extraordinary dryness; and there is but little rain, except from July to October. The general range of the thermometer is from 10 deg. to 75 deg. above Fahrenheit. Fevers are uncommon, and instances of remarkable longevity are frequent. Persons withered almost to mummies are met with occasionally, whose extraordinary age is shown by their recollection of certain notable events, which have taken place in times far remote.

Agriculture is in a very primitive and unimproved state, the hoe being alone used by a greater part of the peasantry. Wheat and Indian corn are the principal staples; cotton, flax, and tobacco, although indigenous, are not cultivated: the soil is finely adapted to the Irish potato. The most important natural product of the soil is its pasturage. Most of the high table plains afford the finest grazing, while, for want of water, they are utterly useless for other purposes. That scanty moisture which suffices to bring forth the natural vegetation, is insufficient for agri-

cultural productions, without the aid of irrigation. The high prairies of all this region, differ greatly from those of our border in the general character of their vegetation. They are remarkably destitute of the gay flowering plants for which the former are so celebrated, being mostly clothed with different species of a highly nutritious grass called *grama*, which is of a very short and curly quality. The highlands, upon which alone this sort of grass is produced, being seldom verdant until after the rainy season sets in, the *grama* is only in perfection from August to October. But being rarely nipped by the frost until the rains are over, it cures upon the ground and remains excellent hay—equal, if not superior, to that which is cut and stacked from our western prairies. Although the winters are rigorous, the feeding of stock is almost entirely unknown in New Mexico; nevertheless, the extensive herds of the country, not only of cattle and sheep, but of mules and horses, generally maintain themselves in excellent condition upon the dry pasturage alone through the cold season, and until the rains start up the green grass again the following summer.

The mechanic arts are very rude, even sawed lumber being absolutely unknown. The New Mexicans are celebrated for the manufacture of a beautiful serape or blanket, which is woven into gaudy, rainbow-like hues. Their domestic goods are nearly all wool, the manufacture of which is greatly embarrassed for the want of adequate machinery.

The system of *Peon* slavery existed under the Mexican dominion. By the local laws, a debtor was imprisoned for debt until it was paid; or, if the creditor chose, he took the debtor as a servant to work out his claim. This system operated with a terrible severity upon the unfortunate poor, who, although they worked for fixed wages, received so small a compensation, that if the debt was of any amount, it compelled them to a perpetual servitude, as he received barely sufficient for food and clothing."

Evidences of volcanic action abound in various parts of New Mexico, and the country is rich in gold, silver, and copper. Anthracite coal of an excellent quality is found near Santa Fe. Through its mineral wealth it may eventually have a considerable population; but most of the food to support it will require to be transported thither from the agricultural districts of the Mississippi valley.

The population of New Mexico has been nearly stationary for a long period. In 1860, it was ascertained to be about 93,000, viz: 42,000 Indians, about half civilized; 41,000 peons; and 7,300 white native citizens, mostly of Mexican blood. The number of Americans in the whole country, is less than is contained in ordinary agricultural townships with us.

SANTA FE, the capital of New Mexico, sometimes written Santa Fe de San Francisco—i. e. Holy Faith of St. Francis—is the only town of importance. It is, by air lines, 660 miles west of the Arkansas frontier, 450 south-easterly from Salt Lake City, 900 east-south-east of San Francisco, and 260 north of El Paso, the nearest point in Mexico. "It is on the site of an ancient Indian pueblo, some fifteen miles east of the Rio del Norte, at the base of a snow-clad mountain, and contains a little over three thousand souls, and with its corporate surrounding villages about double that number. The town is irregularly laid out, and is a wretched collection of mud houses, much scattered with intervening corn-fields. The only attempt at architectural compactness, consists of four tiers of buildings around the public square, comprising the governor's house, the custom house, barracks, etc."

In the center of the public square "all the neighboring *rancheros* assemble to sell the produce of their farms and industry. All day long files of donkeys may be seen arriving there, laden with barrels of Taos whisky, bales of goods, forage, wood, earthen jars, melons, grapes, red and green pimientos, onions, pasteques, eggs,

cheese, tobacco, and pinones (fruit of the pine), *Pinus monophylla*. These pinones are generally baked in the oven, or roasted on cinders, as a means of preserving them better. Besides those provisions, the Santa Fe market also affords a great variety of bread and meat. The Indians of the pueblos, too, carry quantities of fish there, either fresh or dried in the sun. In the evening, after the *Angelus*, the square is filled with loungers, who chat, play, laugh, and smoke, until the hour for the fandango; for be it known, the young people of Mexico could not live if they did not dance at least 365 fandangos every year. At Santa Fe, as in Texas, and in all the provinces of Mexico, the women go to the fandangos, with their *rebozo* (mantilla), and arrayed in a light cool costume appropriate to the occasion; seated round the garden, or hall, where the dance is to take place, they smoke cigarettes and chat very loudly while awaiting the cavaliers' invitation."

In Spanish the term *pueblo* means the people and their towns; and in New Mexico it is applied to the Christianized Indians and to their villages.

"When the country was first discovered, these Indians lived in comfortable houses, and cultivated the soil. Indeed, now they are the best horticulturists in



CENT.

An Indian Pueblo or Town.

New Mexico, furnishing most of the fruits and vegetables to be found in the markets. They also cultivate the grape, and have extensive herds of cattle, horses, etc. They are remarkable for sobriety, honesty, morality, and industry, and are much braver than the other classes of New Mexicans, and in the war with Mexico, fought with desperation compared to those in the south. At the time of the conquest, they must have been a very powerful people, numbering near one hundred villages, as their ruins would indicate. The population of their villages or *pueblos*, average about five hundred souls. They assert that they are the descendants of Montezuma. They profess the Catholic faith, but this, doubtless, reaches no farther than understanding its formalities, and at the same time, they all worship the sun.

They were only nominally under the jurisdiction of the Mexican government, many features of their ancient customs, in both government and religion, being retained. Each pueblo was under the control of a *cacique* chosen by themselves, who, with his council, had charge of the interior police of the village. One of their regulations was to appoint a secret watch to suppress vice and disorder of every description, and especially to keep an eye over the young men and women of the village.

Their villages are built with adobes, and with great regularity; sometimes they have but one large house, with several stories, each story divided into apartments, in which the whole village reside. Instead of doors in front, they use trap-doors in the roofs of their houses, to which they mount up on a ladder, which is drawn up at night for greater security. Their dress consists of moccasins, short breeches, and woolen jackets or blankets; they generally wear their hair long. Bows and arrows and a lance, and sometimes a gun, constitute their weapons. They manufacture blankets, as well as other woolen stuffs, crockery ware, and coarse pottery. The dress of many is like the Mexican; but the majority retain their aboriginal costume.

Among the villages of the Pueblos Indians, was that of the Pecos tribe, twenty-five miles east of Santa Fe, which gradually dwindled away under the inroads of the Comanches and other causes, until about the year 1838, when having been reduced to only about a dozen souls of all ages, they abandoned the place.

Many tales are told of the singular habits of this ill-fated tribe, which must, no doubt, have tended to hasten its utter annihilation. A tradition was prevalent among them that Montezuma had kindled a holy fire, and enjoined their ancestors not to suffer it to be extinguished until he should return to deliver his people from the yoke of the Spaniards. In pursuance of these commands, a constant watch had been maintained for ages to prevent the fire from going out; and, as tradition further informed them, that Montezuma would appear with the sun, the deluded Indians were to be seen every clear morning upon the terraced roofs of their houses, attentively watching the appearance of the 'king of light,' in hopes of seeing him accompanied by their immortal sovereign. This consecrated fire was down in a subterranean vault, where it was kept silently smouldering under a covering of ashes, in the basin of a small altar. Some say that they never lost hope in the final coming of Montezuma until, by some accident or other, or a lack of a sufficiency of warriors to watch it, the fire became extinguished; and that it was this catastrophe that induced them to abandon their village. No other pueblo appears to have adopted this extraordinary superstition; like Pecos, however, they have all held Montezuma to be their perpetual sovereign. It would likewise appear that they all worship the sun; for it is asserted to be their regular practice to turn the face toward the east at sunrise.

The wild tribes who inhabit or extend their incursions into New Mexico, are the Navajoes, the Apaches, the Yutas, the Kiawas, and the Comanches. The Navajoes are estimated at about ten thousand, and reside in the main range of the Cordilleras, two hundred miles west of Santa Fe, on the Rio Colorado, near the region from whence historians say the Aztecs emigrated to Mexico. They are supposed to be the remnants of that justly celebrated nation of antiquity who remained in the north. Although living in rude wigwams, they excel all Indian nations in their manufactures. They are still distinguished for some exquisite styles of cotton textures, and display considerable ingenuity in embroidering with feathers the skins of animals. The serape Navajo (Navajo blanket) is of so dense a texture as to be frequently waterproof, and some of the finer qualities bring sixty dollars each, among the Mexicans. Notwithstanding their wandering habits, they cultivate the different grains and vegetables, and possess extensive and superior herds of horses, mules, cattle, sheep, and goats.

The Apaches are mainly west of the Rio del Norte, and are the most powerful and vagrant of the Indian tribes of northern Mexico, and number, it is estimated, fifteen thousand souls, of whom two thousand are warriors. They cultivate and manufacture nothing, and appear to depend entirely upon pillage for subsistence. The depredations of the Apaches have been of so long a duration that beyond the immediate vicinity of the towns, the whole country, from New Mexico to the borders of Durango, is almost entirely depopulated."

m

The population of New Mexico, other than the savage tribes, is mostly east of the Rocky Mountains, in the valley of the Rio Grande and its tributaries. It is almost exclusively confined to towns and villages, the suburbs of which are generally farms, a mode of living indispensable for protection against the savages.

Tuos, north of Santa Fe, is a beautiful valley of nine miles in length, and includes several villages and settlements. The valley grows wheat of an excellent quality, produced on irrigated land.

La Gran Quivira, about 100 miles south of Santa Fe, are ruins of an ancient town, which was supposed to have been reared for mining purposes. The style of architecture is superior to anything at present in New Mexico. To be seen are the remains of Catholic churches, and aqueducts leading to the mountains, eight or ten miles distant. Tradition says, that, in the general massacre of 1680, every soul save one perished.

El Placer, 27 miles south of Santa Fe, is an important mine, from which, since its discovery in 1828, half a million of gold has been taken out.

Albuquerque is in the most fertile locality of the Rio Grande, and although not as important a place as Santa Fe, it is more central. Including the neighboring rancheros, it has a population of 1,000 souls. "Albuquerque for a Mexican town, is tolerably well built. Its buildings, like those inhabited by Mexicans, are of a right parallelopipedon shape, constructed of adobes (blocks of sun dried mud), and arranged generally on the four sides of a rectangle, thus creating an interior court (*paseo*), upon which nearly every one of the apartments opens. There is generally but one exterior or street entrance; and this is generally quite wide and high, the usual width being about six feet, and the height seven. They appear to be made thus wide, at least as far as I have been able to discover, to enable the burros (asses) and other animals to go through with their packs. They are generally strongly secured by double doors. There are two or three buildings in the town with extensive fronts and *portalles* (porches), which look, for this country, very well—one of them being the house, formerly occupied by Governor Armijo. There is a military post at this place, garrisoned by U. S. troops."

Acoma, in the same vicinity, is one of the most ancient and extraordinary of the Indian pueblos. "Acoma is situated on an isolated rock which rises perpendicularly to a height of 300 feet above the plain, and appears like an island in the middle of a lake. The summit of this rock is perfectly horizontal, and its superficies is about sixty acres. To reach it you must climb over hillocks of sand, heaped up by the wind to a third of the height; the two other thirds of the route are hewn in the rock in the shape of a spiral staircase. The town is composed of blocks, each of which contains sixty or seventy houses, and a large Catholic church, with two towers and very pretty spires. The houses are three stories high, and have windows only in the upper one; in construction, they are quite similar to those of the other pueblos of New Mexico. Acoma is in all probability the *Acuco* spoken of by the ancient Spanish historians, which, according to them, was situated between Cibola and Tiguex, and built at the top of perpendicular rocks, whose summits could only be reached by means of 300 steps hewn in the rock, at the end of which steps was a kind of ladder eighteen feet high, also formed by holes cut in the rock. Although this pueblo was deemed impregnable, yet the inhabitants placed huge stones around it, that they might roll them down on any assailant who was bold enough to scale this extraordinary stronghold. Near the dwellings might be seen arable lands sufficient to grow the necessary quantity of maize for the wants of the population; also large cisterns to save the rain waters. The *Acuco*s were called banditti in all the surrounding provinces, into which they made frequent excursions."

Laguna, a few miles north of Acoma, is another ancient Indian pueblo, and contains about a thousand inhabitants, noted for their honesty, sobriety, and industry. "It has the appearance of one of those old German cities on the banks of the Rhine perched on a mountain peak. The houses, with their graduated stories, seem piled one above the other, producing the effect of an immense amphitheater; the river bathes the foot of the eminence on which Laguna is built, and flows in tortuous windings through the plain."

Zuni, perhaps the most important of all the pueblos, is west of Laguna. Its present population is about 2,000. "The houses are of the same style as those of the other Indian pueblos; their graduated stories are almost all festooned with long garlands of red pimentos, that dry in the sun. The town possesses a Catholic church thirty-three yards in length, by nine in width, it is built of *adobes*, and behind its sole altar is suspended a paint-

ing representing Our Lady of Guadalupe, the patroness of Mexico; a few statues surround the painting, but the lateral walls are completely bare. The governor lives in a house three stories high, wherein the caciques or chiefs of the government frequently assemble. The Zunis have a mania for taming eagles, which they catch while yet very young on the neighboring mountains; multitudes of these birds are to be seen on the terraces of the houses, spreading their enormous wings as they bask in the sun."

Zuni Vieja, or Old Zuni, the ancient Cibola, stood in the immediate vicinity. The ruins are yet to be seen. They are in the center of a plateau, elevated more than 900 feet above the plains, to which access is gained only by climbing almost inaccessible rocks. It was only in 1694, that it became definitely conquered by the Spaniards.

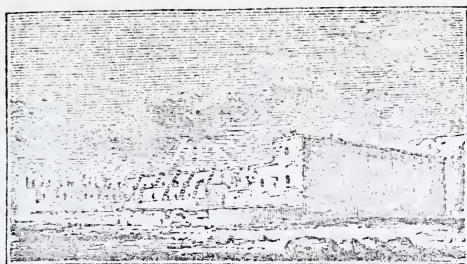
ANTIQUITIES OF NEW MEXICO.

Much of New Mexico is as yet unexplored; but the various expeditions of the scientific corps of the U. S. army have, of late years, given us the unexpected information of the existence of antiquities in the heart of our continent, as surprising and worthy of curiosity as those in Central America. In the region north and east of the Gila, and east of the Rio Colorado, in a space of some few hundred square miles, the ruins of ancient walled cities to the number, it is estimated by an officer of the topographical corps of engineers, of 1,000, are found at this day. These show that the country, at some very remote and unknown era, perhaps thousands of years since, was densely populated, and by a race to a considerable degree civilized. The natives living in the pueblos of that region, can give no information respecting them. Their builders were far in advance of any people found when the country was conquered by the Spaniards, more than 300 years ago. Their masonry and carpentry show much skill. Beautiful and highly ornamented pottery also is found in the vicinity of these cities; but in every instance it is in fragments, not a single perfect utensil having ever been discovered. The immense amount of this broken pottery strewn around would indicate, at some time or other, a regular sacking of these places. The climate and soil must have changed since this mysterious race dwelt here; for it is now a barren, rainless region, incapable of supporting anything like the population these ruins indicate. The extreme dryness of the climate has, doubtless, preserved the woodwork to our time.

The journal of Lieut. James H. Simpson, of the corps of U. S. topographical engineers, of a military reconnoissance from Santa Fe to the Navajo country, in the year 1849, and published by government, first gave to the world detailed descriptions of some of these ruined cities. Others on a larger scale and more important have been found farther west, of which descriptions have not as yet been published. We derive the facts and illustrations given below from the work alluded to.

The command, consisting of 175 men under Col. J. M. Washington, left Santa Fe on the 16th of August. They passed southerly and westerly, and on the 26th came to the highest point of land dividing the tributaries of the Gulf of Mexico from those of the Pacific, when they commenced gradually descending the western slope, and reached the Rio Chaco, a tributary of the San Juan. Here, upon the Rio Chaco, were found a number of the ancient towns or pueblos, named respectively, Pueblo Pintado, Weje-gi, Una Vida,

Hungo Pavie, Chetro Kettle, Del Arroyo, and De Penasca Blanca. These ruins are between 36° and 37° N. lat., and near 108° W. long. "They are evidently," says Simpson, "from the similarity of their style and mode of construction, of a common origin. They discover in the materials of which

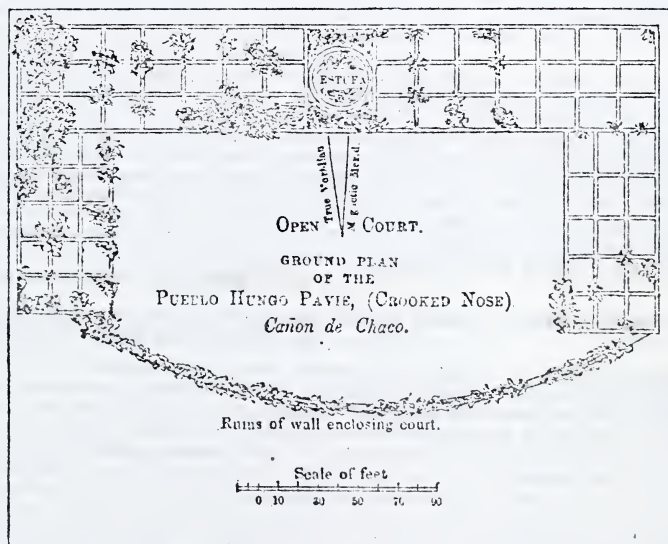


ANCIENT PUEBLO.*

The engraving shows Hungo Pavie, *i. e.*, Crooked Nose, in its original condition.

they are composed, as well as in the grandeur of their design and superiority of their workmanship, a condition of architectural excellence beyond the power of the Indians or New Mexicans of the present day to exhibit." He further adds there is a great deal to strengthen the hypothesis that they are of *Aztec origin*. The largest was De Penasca Blanca, which in circuit was 1,700 feet, and the number of rooms on the first floor 112.

It differed in its walls from the other pueblos: the stones composing them being of one uniform character; but in this there is a regular alternation of large and small stones, the effect of which is unique and beautiful. The first pueblo examined was Pintado. We annex Simpson's description:



"After partaking of some refreshments, I started off, with high expectations—my assistants, the Messrs. Kern, accompanying me—to examine the ruins of *Pueblo Pintado*. We found them to more than answer our expectations. Forming one structure, and built of tabular pieces of hard, fine grained, compact gray sandstone (a material entirely unknown

* "Unwittingly the artist," says Lieut. Simpson, "has fallen one story short of the number the ruins exhibited. In their restored state, four stories should appear."

in the present architecture of New Mexico), to which the atmosphere has imparted a red dish tinge, the layers or beds being not thicker than three inches, and sometimes as thin as one fourth of an inch, it discovers in the masonry a combination of science and art which can only be referred to a higher stage of civilization and refinement than is discoverable in the works of Mexicans or Pueblos of the present day. Indeed, so beautifully diminutive and true are the details of the structure as to cause it, at a little distance, to have all the appearance of a magnificent piece of mosaic work.

In the outer face of the buildings there are no signs of mortar, the intervals between the beds being chinked with stones of the minutest thinness. The filling and backing are done in rubble masonry, the mortar presenting no indications of the presence of lime. The thickness of the main wall at base is within an inch or two of three feet; higher up, it is less—diminishing every story by retreating jogs on the inside, from bottom to top. Its elevation, at its present highest point, is between twenty-five and thirty feet, the series of floor beams indicating that there must have been originally at least three stories. The ground plan, including the court, in exterior development, is about 493 feet. On the ground floor, exclusive of the outbuildings, are fifty-four apartments, some of them as small as five feet square, and the largest about twelve by six feet. These rooms communicate with each other by very small doors, some of them as contracted as two and a half by two and a half feet; and in the case of the inner suite, the doors communicating with the interior court are as small as three and a half by two feet. The principal rooms or those most in use, were, on account of their having larger doors and windows, most probably those of the second story. The system of flooring seems to have been large transverse unhewn beams, six inches in diameter, laid transversely from wall to wall, and then a number of smaller ones, about three inches in diameter, laid longitudinally upon them. What was placed on these does not appear, but most probably it was brush, bark, or slabs, covered with a layer of mud mortar. The beams show no signs of the saw or axe; on the contrary, they appear to have been hacked off by means of some very imperfect instrument. On the west face of the structure, the windows which are only in the second story, are three feet two inches by two feet two inches. On the north side, they are only in the second and third stories, and are as small as fourteen by fourteen inches. At different points about the premises were three circular apartments sunk in the ground, the walls being of masonry. These apartments the Pueblo Indians call *estufas*, or places where the people held their political and religious meetings.

....Not finishing our examinations at the ruins of Pueblo Pintado yesterday afternoon, we again visited them early this morning. On digging about the base of the exterior wall, we find that, for at least two feet (the depth our time would permit us to go), the same kind of masonry obtains below as above, except that it appears more compact. We could find no signs of the genuine arch about the premises, the lintels of the doors and windows being generally either a number of pieces of wood laid horizontally side by side, a single stone slab laid in this manner, or occasionally a series of smaller ones so placed horizontally upon each other that, while presenting the form of a sharp angle, in vertical longitudinal section, they would support the weight of the fabric above. Fragments of pottery lay scattered around, the colors showing taste in their selection and in the style of their arrangement, and being still quite bright."

Simpson, in his description of the Pueblo Hongo Pavie, of which both ground plan and elevation are herein pictorially given, says:

These ruins show the same nicety in the details of their masonry as already described. The ground plan shows an extent of exterior development of eight hundred and seventy-two feet, and a number of rooms upon the ground floor equal to seventy-two. The structure shows the existence of but one circular *estufa*, and this is placed in the body of the north portion of the building, midway from either extremity. This *estufa* differs from the others we have seen, in having a number of interior counterforts. The main walls of the building are at base two and three quarter feet through, and at this time show a height of about thirty feet. The ends of the floor beams, which are still visible, plainly showing that there was originally, at least, a vertical series of four floors, there must then also have been originally at least a series of four stories of rooms; and as the *debris* at the base of the walls is very great, it is reasonable to infer that there may have been even more. The floor beams, which are round, in transverse section, and eleven inches in diameter, as well as the windows, which are as small as twelve by thirteen inches, have been arranged horizontally, with great precision and regularity. Pottery, as usual, was found scattered about the premises....

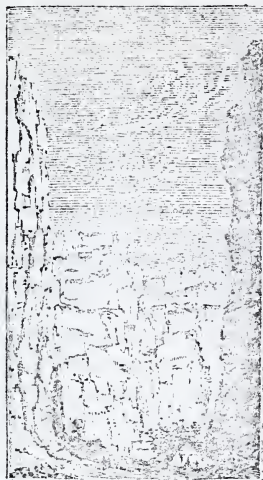
The question now arises, as we have seen all the ruins in this quarter, what was the form of these buildings?—I mean as regards the continuity or non-continuity of its front and rear walls. Were these walls one plain surface from bottom to top, as in the United States,

or were they interrupted each story by a terrace, as is the case with the modern pueblo buildings in New Mexico?

The front or exterior walls were evidently one plain surface from bottom to top; because whenever we found them in their integrity, which we did for as many as four stories in height, we always noticed them to be uninterruptedly plain.

The rear walls, however, were, in no instance that I recollect of, found to extend higher than the commencement of the second story; and the partition walls were, if my memory

is not at fault, correspondingly steplike in their respective altitudes. The idea, then, at once unfolds itself, that in elevation the inner wall must have been a series of retreating surfaces, or, what would make this necessary, each story on the inner or court side must have been terraced. This idea also gathers strength from the fact that we saw no indications of any internal mode of ascent from story to story, and therefore that some exterior mode must have been resorted to—such as, probably, ladders, which the terrace form of the several stories would render very convenient. Again, the terrace form



CANON OF CHELLY.

About 500 feet deep.



RUINS OF AN ANCIENT PUEBLO.

In the Canon of Chelly.

of the stories would best conduce to light and ventilation for the interior ranges of apartments. The idea then, which Mr. R. H. Kern was the first to suggest—that these pueblos were terraced on their inner or court side—is not without strong grounds of probability; and it is in consonance with this idea that, in his *restoration* of the *Pueblo Hundo Parie*, he has given it the form exhibited in the drawing.

It is a curious fact, that in no single instance did we find in these ruins either a chimney or a fireplace, unless, indeed, the recesses described as existing in some of the rooms were used as fireplaces, which their slight height, as well as deprivation of chimney flues, would scarcely authorize. Neither were there any indications of the use of iron about the premises."

A few days later the command came to the renowned Canon of Chelly. This gorge has long had a distinguished reputation among the natives of this region, from its great depth and impregnability. It is inhabited by the Navajoes, who, although they possess the skill to manufacture one of the most beautiful kind of blankets in the world, possess no better habitations than the conical pole, brush and mud lodge. This was explored for a distance of over nine miles; and the further they ascended it the greater was the altitude of the inclosing walls: at their furthest point of progress it was 502 feet high, and the average width 600 feet. The total length of the canon was judged to be about 25 miles. In ascending it they saw some fine caves here and there; also small habitations made up of overhanging rock, and artificial walls laid in stone and mortar—the latter forming the front portion of the dwelling. Some four miles from the mouth, they came to the ruins of a small pueblo, like those already described. It stood on the shelf of the left hand wall, about 50 feet up from the bottom, and the wall being very nearly perpendicular, it could only be approached by ladders. Seven miles from the mouth they fell in with the ruins shown in the engraving, with the stupendous rocks in rear and overhanging them.

"These ruins are on the left or north side of the canon, a portion of them being situated at the foot of the escarpment wall, and the other portion upon a shelf in

the wall immediately back of the other part, some fifty feet above the bed of the canon. The wall in front of this latter portion being vertical, access to it could only have been obtained by means of ladders. The front of these ruins measures one hundred and forty-five feet, and their depth forty-five. The style of structure is similar to that of the pueblos found on the Chaco—the building material being of small, thin sandstones, from two to four inches thick, imbedded in mud mortar, and chinked in the facade with smaller stones. The present height of its walls is about eighteen feet. Its rooms are exceedingly small, and the windows only a foot square. One circular estufa was all that was visible."

In speaking of this canon, Simpson says: "What appears to be singular, the sides of the lateral walls are not only as vertical as natural walls can well be conceived to be, but they are perfectly free from a talus of debris, the usual concomitant of rocks of this description. Does not this point to a crack or natural fissure as having given origin to the canon, rather than to aqueous agents, which, at least at the present period, show an utter inadequacy as a producing cause?"

Although the canon of Chelly was, at the time, considered a great curiosity, later explorers in the wild waste country between the Rocky Mountains and California have found numerous other of these fissures, to which this can bear no comparison. Some of them are entirely inaccessible, without outlet or inlet, deep, gloomy cracks, descending far down into the earth, lower than the bottom of the Pacific Ocean, bounded by forbidding, perpendicular walls, at the base of which the foot of man has never penetrated. Others form the valleys of streams, which, as one stands on their verge, are seen winding their serpentine course down in a gorge thousands of feet below. The canon of the Rio Colorado is of this character: Lieut. Ives, in his explorations ascertained it to be about 11,000 feet, or more than two miles in depth.

About 200 miles westerly from Santa Fe, and near the town of Zuni, the command came to a stupendous mass of rock, about 250 feet in height, and strikingly peculiar from its massive character, and the Egyptian style of its natural buttresses and domes. "Skirting this stupendous mass of rock," states Simpson, "on its left or north side, for about a mile, the guide, just as we had reached its eastern terminus, was noticed to leave us, and ascend a low mound or rampart at its base, the better, as it appeared, to scan the face of the rock, which he had scarcely reached before he cried out to us to come up. We immediately went up, and, sure enough, here were inscriptions, and some of them very beautiful; and, although, with those which we afterward examined on the south face of the rock, there could not be said to be half an acre of them, yet the hyperbole was not near so extravagant as I was prepared to find it. The fact then being certain that here were indeed inscriptions of interest, if not of value, one of them dating as far back as 1606, all of them very ancient, and several of them very deeply as well as beautifully engraved, I gave directions for a halt—Bird at once proceeding to get up a meal, and Mr. Kern and myself to the work of making facsimiles of the inscriptions. . . . The greater portion of these inscriptions are in Spanish, with some little sprinkling of what appeared to be an attempt at Latin, and the remainder in hieroglyphics, doubtless of Indian origin."

We copy a few of the inscriptions from Simpson, to present an idea of their general character. The engraving is made from one in the work of Domenech:

"Bartolome Narrso, Governor and Captain General of the Provinces of New Mexico, for our Lord the King, passed by this place, on his return from the Pueblo of Zuni, on the 29th of July, of the year 1620, and put them in peace, at their petition, asking the favor to become subjects of his majesty, and anew they gave their obedience: all which they did with free consent, knowing it prudent, as well as very Christian (a word or two effaced), to so distinguished and gallant a soldier, indomitable and famed; we love" (the remainder effaced.)

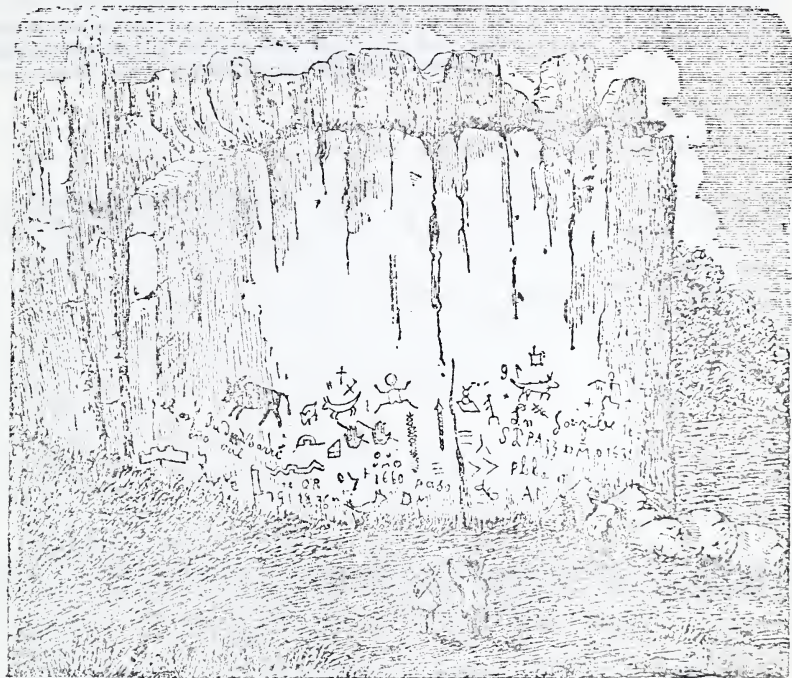
"By this place passed Second Lieutenant Joseph de Payba Basconzelos, in the year in which the council of the kingdom bore the cost, on the 18th of February, in the year 1726."

"Pero Vacu (possibly intended for *vacu*—cow) ye Jarde."

"Alma."

"Leo."

"Captain Jude Vubarri, in the year of our Lord 1," (probably meaning 1701. The hieroglyphics, excepting what appears to designate a buffalo, not decipherable.)



Inscription Rock, near the Pueblo of Zuni.

On the hights above the inscription are the ruins of an ancient pueblo, similar to the others described, though inferior in the style of masonry.

Mr. Simpson was not enamored with New Mexico. In his journal he states that he had not seen a rich, well timbered, and sufficiently watered country since he had left the confines of the states on the borders of the Mississippi valley. He makes these remarks upon this part of New Mexico. The portion farther west, to the California line, according to other observers, is no more alluring. Says he:

"The idea I pertinaciously adhered to, before ever having seen this country, was, that, beside partaking of the bold characteristics of the primary formations, rocks confusedly piled upon rocks, deep glens, an occasional cascade, green fertile valleys—the usual accompaniments of such characteristics with us in the states—it was also, like the country of the states, generally fertile, and covered with verdure. But never did I have, nor do I believe anybody can have, a full appreciation of the almost universal barrenness which pervades this country, until they come out, as I did, to 'search the land,' and behold with their own eyes its general

nakedness. The primary mountains present none of that wild, rocky, diversified, pleasing aspect which they do in the United States, but, on the contrary, are usually of a rounded form, covered by a dull, lifeless-colored soil, and generally destitute of any other sylvia than pine and cedar, most frequently of a sparse and dwarfish character. The sedimentary rocks, which, contrary to my preconceived notions, are the prevalent formations of the country, have a crude, half-made-up appearance, sometimes of a dull buff color, sometimes white, sometimes red, and sometimes these alternating, and being almost universally bare of vegetation, except that of a sparse, dwarfish, sickening-colored aspect, can not be regarded as a general thing—at least, not until familiarity reconciles you to the sight—without a sensation of loathing. The face of the country, for the same reason—the general absence of all verdure, and the dead, dull, yellow aspect of its soil—has a tendency to create the same disagreeable sensation."

ARIZONA TERRITORY.

ARIZONA originally comprised a long, narrow strip of territory, south of the Gila River, extending from the Rio Grande on the east to the Rio Colorado on the west, just above its entrance into the Gulf of California. It was purchased, in 1854, of Mexico, from the northern part of the state of Sonora, for ten millions of dollars. It was for some time styled the *Gadsden Purchase*, out of compliment to General Gadsden, the American minister, who negotiated the treaty. It was temporarily attached, by congress, to the territory of New Mexico. It was about 500 miles long, with a width ranging from 20 to 130 miles, and comprising 31,000 square miles. It was separated from Texas by the Rio Grande; from Lower California by the Rio Colorado; and on the south of it were the Mexican states of Chihuahua and Sonora.

When it was purchased of Mexico there was scarcely any inhabitants, except a few scattered Mexicans in the Mesilla valley, on the Rio Grande, and at the old town of Tucson, in the center of the purchase. The marauding Apache Indians had gradually extirpated almost every trace of civilization in what was once an inhabited Mexican province.*

In 1854, congress formed the present territory of Arizona from the west halves of New Mexico and the Gadsden Purchase; and the east half of the latter is now the southern part of New Mexico. Arizona has an area of 131,000 square miles. The capital, named Prescott, is in the center of the territory.

"Much interesting information upon the early history of this comparatively little known part of the United States, was obtained from the archives of the Mexican government, by Capt. C. P. Stone, late of the U. S. army. It appears that as early as 1687, a Catholic missionary from the province of Sonora, which, in its southern portion, bore already the impress of Spanish civilization, descended the valley of Santa Cruz River to the Gila, which he

*The following extract from the report of Col. Chas. D. Poston, agent of the Sonora Exploring and Mining Company, under date of Jan. 31, 1857, will give a fair idea of the condition of the country at the period when it came into the possession of our people: "It may not be amiss, in these desultory remarks, to note the improvement in Tubac and the adjacent country since our arrival. When we forced our wagons here, over the undergrowth on the highway, in September last (1856), no human being was present to greet our coming, and desolation overshadowed the scene. It was like entering the lost city of Pompeii. The atmosphere was loaded with the malaria of a rank vegetation, the undergrowth in the bottom served as a lurking place for the deadly Apache, and the ravens in the old church window croaked a surly welcome. Now the highroads are alive with trains and people. Commerce, agriculture, and mining are resuming their wonted prosperity under the enterprise, intelligence, and industry of our people. The former citizens of Tubac have returned to the occupation of their houses, set to work vigorously upon their milpas, and are loud in their praises of American liberty and freedom."

followed to its mouth, now the site of Fort Yuma. From this point he ascended the valley of the Gila, the Salinas or Salt River, and other branches. Proceeding east, he explored the valley of the San Pedro and its branches, reached the Mimbres, and probably the Rio Grande and the Mesilla valley. Filled with the enthusiasm of his sect, he procured authority from the head of the order in Mexico, and established missions and settlements at every available point. In a report to the viceroy of Spain, made during the early settlement of the province, we find the following statement: 'A scientific exploration of Sonora, with reference to mineralogy, along with the introduction of families, will lead to a discovery of gold and silver, so marvelous, that the result will be such as has never yet been seen in the world.' A map of this and the adjoining territories was drawn by some of the Spanish missionaries in 1757, and dedicated to the king of Spain. The reports of the immense mineral wealth of the new country made by the priests, induced a rapid settlement."

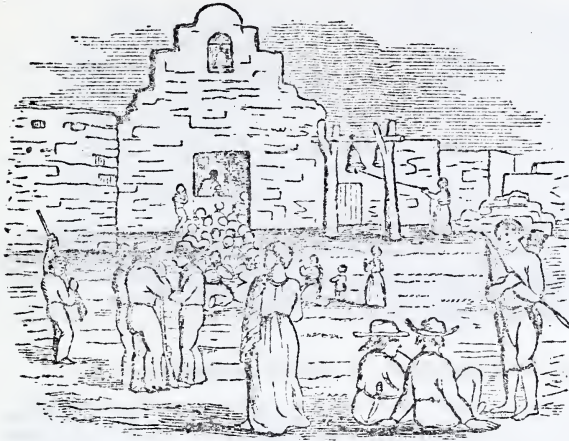
The sites of various villages, ranches, and missions, as indicated on this map, were principally in the valleys of the San Pedro, Santa Cruz, and on the Mimbres. "The missions and settlements were repeatedly destroyed by the Apaches, and the priests and settlers massacred or driven off. The Indians, at length thoroughly aroused by the cruelties of the Spaniards, by whom they were deprived of their liberty, forced to labor in the silver mines with inadequate food, and barbarously treated, finally rose, joined with the tribes who had never been subdued, and gradually drove out or massacred their oppressors. Civilization disappeared before their devastating career, and in its place we now find, with few exceptions, only ruins and decay, fields deserted, and mines abandoned. The mission of San Xavier del Bac, and the old towns of Tucson and Tubac, are the most prominent of these remains. The mission of San Xavier del Bac is a grand old structure, which, from its elegant masonry and tasteful ornaments, must have been erected in times of great prosperity. From 1757 down to 1820, the Spaniards and Mexicans continued to work many valuable mines near Barbacora, and the ancient records and notes mention many silver mines most of which contain a percentage of gold. The most celebrated modern localities are Arivaca (also anciently famous as *Aribac*), Soporí, the Arizona Mountains, the Santa Rita range, the Cerro Colorado, the entire vicinity of Tubac, the Del Ajo, or Arizona copper mine, the Gadsden copper mine, and the Gila River copper mines. As late as 1820, the *Mina Cobre de la Plata* (silver and copper mines), near Fort Webster, north of the Gila, were worked to great advantage; and so rich was the ore that it paid for transportation on mule-back, more than a thousand miles, to the city of Mexico.

The silver mining region of Arizona is, in fact, the north-western extension of the great silver region of Mexico. The mountain ranges are the prolongations of those which southward in Sonora, Chihuahua, and Durango, have yielded silver by millions for centuries past. The general direction of the mountains and the veins, is north-west and south-east, and there are numerous parallel chains or ranges which form long and narrow valleys in the same direction. Like most mineral regions, Arizona is of small value for agriculture, possessing in comparison with its extent but little arable land, and in most parts is nearly destitute of water, and desert-like. Some of this forbidding and arid surface would, however, prove fertile if irrigated."

The population of Arizona, aside from the Indians, amounted in 1860 to but a few thousand souls. In the whole territory, persons of the Anglo-Saxon race, aside from the U. S. soldiers in garrison, numbered, at the outside, but a few hundred souls; the remainder of the inhabitants consisted of Mexicans, mostly of the peon class. The Pimos Indians live in villages on the Gila River, in the north-western part of the country, and are a friendly, in-offensive race, who raise corn and wheat, and supply emigrants who traverse the southern route to California. The Apaches are a wild, thieving tribe,

of murderers, who live on the head streams of the Gila, beyond the reach of the white man.

The southern boundary of Arizona was so run as to exclude any part of the Gulf of California from American jurisdiction, so that she has not there a single seaport.



CHURCH AT TUCSON.

On San Antonio's Day, 1860.

Tucson, the principal town, is a miserable collection of adobe houses, in the valley of the Santa Cruz. It contains about 700 inhabitants, nearly all of them degraded Mexicans. The engraving shows the church of the place, an adobe or sun-burned brick structure; it is from a drawing in outline, taken on San Antonio's day, in 1860. Among the fig-

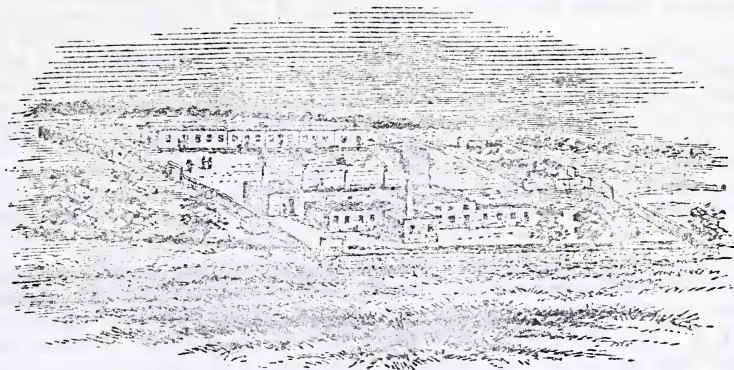
ures are one or two of the wild Apache Indians and numerous females, etc.

Tubac, 52 miles south of Tucson, is the business center of the silver mining district of Arizona, and contains a few hundred souls. The principal mines worked in its vicinity are the Heintzelman and those of the Santa Rita Company. With the pecuniary success of these mines, appears to be connected the immediate progress of the territory, as, aside from the mines, it has no resources; but in these Arizona has a great future.

When our pioneers poured in upon the gold placers of California, the intrepid gold-hunter could, alone and single handed, work his way to wealth, with a jack-knife and tin-pan; and, at the end of a day's labor, tie up the avails in a rag, place it under his pillow, and then dream pleasantly of wife, and children, and home, far away on the other side of the continent.

Silver mining is a different business. The eager novice might collect his tons of silver ore; and then would come the tantalizing discovery—it was labor lost. To extract the silver from its ores, is often one of the most difficult of all chemical processes, requiring practice with a peculiar aptness for metallurgy, so diversified and intricate are the combinations of this metal with other minerals. No college professor, however fine a metallurgist he might be, could successfully manage the *reduction works* of a silver mine; Americans, until they learn the art, and "improve upon it," as is their national bent, will be compelled to procure their talent of this kind from those bred from youth to this branch, in Mexico and Germany. Aside from this difficulty, enormous outlays are required to start and work a silver mine: this can generally only be obtained by associated capital. With this comes

the cumbrous, awkward revolving machinery of corporations, and its attendant evils of mismanagement, in which the interests of the small, confiding stockholder are too apt to be the last thing attended to by directors and agents. Could the amount of money lost in our Union, within the last ten



Reduction Works of the Heintzelman Silver Mine.

The engraving is from a drawing by H. C. Grosvenor. This establishment is on the famous Arivaca Rancho. The Reduction Works are in front, where the ore is reduced to silver by the German (Freyburg) amalgamation barrel process. On the extreme right of the inclosure is the corral for the mules. In the rear is seen the officers' quarters and store houses; on the left and also in the rear of the store-houses are the huts of the Mexican laborers or peons, of whom here and in the mine several hundred are employed. The buildings are all adobes.

years alone, by the selfishness and mismanagement of men in charge of corporations be ascertained, it would probably sum up many fold the value of all the property more courageously stolen by the united labor of all the burglars who have been thrust into the cells of our penitentiaries, from the foundation of the government to the present day. Thus multitudes, orphans and widows, have been wronged, and the hard-earned accumulations of vigorous manhood, laid by in a spirit of self-denial, as a resource for old age, irretrievably and shamefully lost. The suspicious and selfish carry in their own bosoms a defense against such allurements: the single-hearted and innocent fall victims. The hard lesson taught to individuals is, that money is seldom safely spent, excepting by the hand that earns it. Yet it is only by associated capital great enterprises can be consummated; and so, through more or less of personal risk and loss, the general welfare is promoted.

Such are the enormous returns of successful silver mines, that capital and enterprise have always been ready to embark in the development of even veins of moderate promise. In Mexico, where silver mining has been, for over two hundred years, the great staple business of the country, the most enormous fortunes have been realized in working mines. The famous Real Del Monte, near the city of Mexico, is now 1,500 feet deep, and yielded in 1857, \$3,750,000 of silver from ore which averaged \$36 per ton. The Biscaina vein, in the 12 years immediately succeeding 1762, in which the adit of Moran was completed, yielded to its owner, Tereros, a clear profit of \$6,000,000. The produce of Catorce, taking the average of the five years from 1800 to 1804, was \$2,854,000. Santa Eulalia, near Chihuahua, from 1795 to 1737, yielded \$55,952,750, or an average of \$1,748,742 per annum. These and numerous other instances of successful mining, as published in Ward's History of Mexico, show silver mining to be a business of great vicissitudes, involving large expenditures, with a prospect of gains correspondingly large. The

whole produce of the Mexican mines was estimated by Humboldt, in 1803, at nearly two thousand millions of dollars.

By many, and especially the Mexicans, the Gadsden Purchase is regarded as the richest portion of the continent, for mines of silver, copper and lead. Silver ore has already been reduced there which yielded, in large quantities, \$1,000 to the ton. The average of the Heintzelman mine has been \$250, although much of the ore taken from it yielded from \$1,000 to \$5,000 per ton, and some at the rate of over \$20,000.

The copper mines worked on the Mimbres River, yield large quantities of ore which is 95 per cent. copper, while the lead mines of the Santa Rita and Santa Cruz Mountains, are really inexhaustible. With these mineral treasures, placed by nature for the use of man, it is not at all probable that Arizona will long remain in its present condition. When once the mining enterprises already begun shall have demonstrated, either in the hands of their present proprietors or some others, that the precious metals not only exist there, but may become profitable, a new impetus will be given to this kind of industry, and the silver country of Arizona will become as widely known as the golden fields of California.

Various modes are practiced of reducing silver from its ores. 1. The *Furnace*. 2. The Mexican or patio (floor) amalgamation, with quicksilver. 3. The caze (or kettle) amalgamation. 4. The Freyberg or German barrel amalgamation. 5. Augustin's method, by salt, without mercury. 6. Zier-vogel's method, with salt or mercury. These modes can not be indiscriminately applied. The character of the ores, climate, and other circumstances will alone determine it. If the ore of a mine, in its mineralogical constituents, is not adapted to the mode of operation to which the operator is bred, he is generally powerless to reduce it. One experienced in smelting ores, can not reduce those which are adapted to "the patio;" or one accustomed to "the patio," can not reduce by the German barrel, or by the Augustin process, and *vice versa*.

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ALABAMA.

ALABAMA is an Indian expression, said to signify "here we rest." It is supposed that its soil was first visited by white men in 1540, that being the

year when its territory was traversed by the followers of De Soto, in his celebrated expedition through Florida to the Mississippi. After a long and disastrous march, De Soto arrived with his cavalcade by the waters of the Coosa, having made his entry into Alabama from the northern part of Georgia, where he had been searching for gold. The country of the Coosa tribe embraced the present counties of Cherokee, Benton, Talladega and Coosa.



ARMS OF ALABAMA.

From Coosa the expedition advanced toward Tallapoosa. Crossing the Tallapoosa, they were received by Tuscaloosa, an Indian chieftain, who was "lord over many territories and

much people, and was feared by his neighbors and subjects." Passing down the western side of Alabama River with Tuscaloosa, De Soto arrived at Maubila, the capital of the country. This place consisted of eighty handsome houses, each sufficiently capacious to contain a thousand men. They were encompassed by a high wall made of immense trunks of trees, set deep in the ground and close together, strengthened with cross-timbers and interwoven with large vines. This place is supposed to have occupied the present site of Choctaw Bluff, in Clarke county, about twenty-five miles above the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee.

It appears that Tuscaloosa had taken measures after De Soto came within his capital, to seize him and his men as prisoners. De Soto having discovered the plot took measures of defense. The attack was begun by an Indian chief, who rushed out of a house and loudly denounced the Spaniards as *robbers, thieves and assassins*. A murderous conflict ensued. The Indians, supposed to have been upward of ten thousand in number, joined by many of their young women, fought desperately, and for a time the conflict seemed doubtful. De Soto, mounted upon his horse, calling loudly upon "*our Lady and Santiago*," rushed boldly upon the enemy, and forced his way over hun-

dreds of fighting men and women. Followed by his troops, prodigies of valor were performed, and the ground was covered with the slain. The conflict lasted nine hours. Although victory was on the side of the Spaniards it was dearly bought. Eighty of their number were slain or died of their wounds; forty-five horses were killed, an irreparable loss in their condition. Nearly all their camp equipage and baggage were consumed by the flames. Maubila was laid in ashes; at least six thousand Indians were slain, and the tribe almost annihilated. De Soto now proceeded northward, crossed the Black Warrior and Tombigbee, and proceeded westward to the Mississippi, having many conflicts with the Indians on his route.

"At the time of De Soto's expedition, Alabama was inhabited by the Coosas, Talassees, Mobilians and Choctaws. Being nearly destroyed by his invasion, the Muscogeas and Alabamas, who had been driven out of Mexico by Cortez, occupied their places. The Muscogeas were a warlike race, and conquered the tribes with whom they came in contact. They extended their conquests, and overran Georgia to the Savannah River. They received into their tribe the relics of the Alabamas, Tuskegees, and several other tribes. The Muscogee confederacy at length became the most formidable in the country. They received the name of "Creeks," from the number of beautiful streams flowing through their country.

After the invasion of De Soto, the soil of Alabama appears to have been untrodden by Europeans for nearly a century and a half. In 1702, Bienville, the governor of Louisiana, sailed up the bay of Mobile, and at the mouth of Dog River commenced the erection of a fort, a warehouse, and other public buildings. The fort was long designated as Fort St. Louis de la Mobile. Here was the seat of government for nine years. At the end of this period, in 1711, the French moved up to the mouth of Mobile River, where they founded the present city of Mobile.

Bienville, the French governor, pursued a friendly policy with the natives, and endeavored to secure the friendship and alliance of the various tribes upon the Mobile River and its tributaries. Mobile being the seat of government, various delegations of Indian chiefs, Spaniards from Vera Cruz, and Canadians from the northern lakes and rivers, repaired there to see Governor Bienville upon business. The English traders from Virginia and Carolina were a source of great annoyance to the French. During the wars between France and England, the latter power instigated the Indians against the French colonists. To stop their expeditions, Bienville located a fort upon the Alabama at Tuskegee. In 1721, three French war-ships, loaded with African slaves, arrived at Mobile. Ultimately the disasters of the colonists caused the abandonment of Mobile to a later period.

At the treaty of Paris, in 1763, the French gave up their possessions on the continent of America. The western bank of the Mississippi, from its source to its mouth, but including the island of New Orleans on the other bank, passed into the hands of Spain, while Great Britain acquired Canada, all the territory east of the Mississippi as far south as the Bayou Iberville, and the whole of Florida. The whole of Alabama and Mississippi, and that portion of Louisiana north of a line drawn through the Bayou Iberville, the Amite, lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, to the sea, and east of the Mississippi River, became thus a British possession, known until 1781 as West Florida and the province of Illinois. Alabama was divided on the parallel of 32° 28' between West Florida and Illinois, in nearly equal divisions, and Montgomery and Wetumpka, which are but fifteen miles apart, were in different jurisdictions.

George Johnson, the first British governor, organized a military government, garrisoned the fort at Mobile, and that of Toulouse, up the Coosa. The first English inhabitants of Mobile died in great numbers, from habits of intemperance, exposure, and contagious disorders, introduced by the military. The exports of Mobile, in 1772, were indigo, raw hides, corn, cattle, tallow, rice, pitch, bear's oil, lumber, fish, etc. Cotton was cultivated in small quantities. The charter granted to Georgia comprised within its limits all the territory westward to the Mississippi. That state, considering its title to these lands as perfect, made grants to various companies, for the purpose of settlement. Two sets of these, known as the "*Yazoo Grants*," have acquired a celebrity in history. By the first, five millions of acres in Mississippi were granted to the South Carolina Yazoo Company; seven millions to the Virginia Yazoo Company; and 3,500,000 acres in Alabama to the Tennessee Company. The United States authorities opposed these grants, and the several companies having failed to pay the purchase money, Georgia rescinded her patents. Several years afterward, Georgia made other and more considerable grants. These sales raised a storm throughout the country; they were denounced by Gen. Washington, in his message to congress, and, eventually, they were declared null and void.

Alabama, at this period, was almost entirely in the occupation of the natives. There was a garrison of Spanish troops at Mobile, and also at St. Stephens, on the Tombigbee, with trading posts upon the Oconee, and on other points in the south and west. The whole country west of the present limits of Georgia, to the Mississippi, was now purchased by the United States, and, in 1817, was erected into the "Mississippi Territory." Fort Stoddard was built near the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee, and the county of Washington laid out, embracing a space out of which 20 counties in Alabama and 12 in Mississippi have since been made.

At the period of the second war with Great Britain, Alabama was a theater of Indian warfare, as a great part of the state was then inhabited by a number of tribes of Indians, of whom the Creeks were the principal. In 1812, the Creeks having been stirred up to war by Tecumseh, the celebrated Shawnee warrior, commenced hostile operations. In August, they fell on Fort Mimms; the garrison made a desperate resistance, but out of three hundred men, women and children, only seventeen survived the massacre. The adjoining states were now roused to action. In November, Gen. Jackson, assisted by Generals Coffee, Floyd, and Claiborne, entered the Indian country, and defeated the Indians at Talladega, where 290 of their warriors were slain. In November, Gen. Floyd attacked the Creeks on their sacred ground, at Autossee. Four hundred of their houses were burned, and 260 of their bravest men killed, among whom were the kings of Autossee and Tallahassee.

The last stand of the Creeks was at Tohopeka, a place called the "*Horseshoe Bend*." Here the Indians fought desperately, but were entirely defeated with the loss of nearly 600 men. The victory ended in the submission of the remaining warriors, and in 1814, a treaty of peace was concluded, and the Creeks have now removed westward of the Mississippi. In 1816, a cession was obtained from the Indians of all the territory from the head waters of the Coosa westward to Cotton Gin Point, and to a point running thence to Caney Creek on the Tennessee. The territorial government being established, the seat of government was located at St. Stephens. William W. Bibb was appointed governor, and the first legislature was convened in 1818.

"The flood-gates of Virginia, the two Carolinas, Tennessee, Kentucky and Georgia were now hoisted, and the mighty streams of emigration poured through them, spreading over the whole territory of Alabama." In 1819, Alabama was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state. The general assembly convened at Huntsville, and William W. Bibb was inaugurated governor.

Alabama lies between 31° and 35° N., and 8° 8' and 11° 29' W. from Washington. It is 317 miles long from north to south, and 174 miles broad, bounded N. by Tennessee, E. by Georgia and Florida, S. by Florida and the Gulf of Mexico, and W. by Mississippi. The north-eastern part of the state, being the region of the termination of the range of the Alleghany Mountains, is hilly, broken, and somewhat mountainous. The southern part, bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, is low and level, and mostly covered with pines. The soil and climate of Alabama varies with the position and elevation of its parts. In the north the soil is moderately fertile; in the central part, which is less elevated and undulating, it is well watered, and in the river bottoms, the land is extremely rich and productive. The most prominent productions of the state are *cotton*—of which in yield it stands first in quantity of any state in the Union—corn, wheat, and rice. Tobacco and sugar are also raised to some extent.

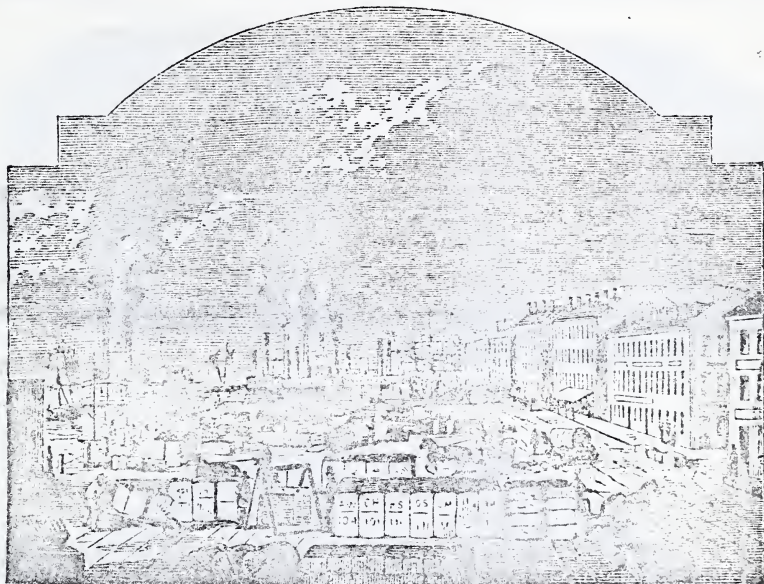
Alabama is rich in mineral productions. The whole central region is underlaid with vast beds of iron ore, or occupied by coal measures of great thickness and extent. The coal is of a bituminous character, and well adapted for steamboats and factories. Various establishments for manufacturing iron have been erected, and their products have become extensive and valuable. The river navigation in the state is quite extensive, in its various windings measuring at least 2,000 miles. The great body of the products of Alabama find their way to Mobile, the commercial emporium, by means of the Alabama and Tombigbee Rivers and their branches. The Baptists and Methodists are the most numerous religious denominations in the state. Population in 1820, was 127,901, of whom 41,879 were slaves; in 1850, it had increased to 771,671, of whom 342,892 were slaves. In 1860, the population was 955,917, of whom 435,473 were slaves.

MOBILE, the principal city and commercial emporium of Alabama, is situated on the west bank of Mobile River, just above its entrance into Mobile Bay, 330 miles S.W. of Montgomery by the river, 166 N.E. from New Orleans, and 1,566 from New York. Population is about 25,000. The city is built on an extended plain, dry and sandy, and elevated about 15 feet above the highest tides. It has a fine prospect of the bay, extending about 30 miles, with an average width of 12 miles, to the Gulf of Mexico. Immediately opposite the city is a low island, covered with high grass and rushes, known as "the marsh." Above, on the banks of the river, is a large swamp; back from the city the dry, sandy hills commence, affording a delightful and healthy retreat from the heat and sickness during the summer.

The streets of Mobile are generally wide, and, of late years, have been much improved by shade trees. The warm season, though tempered by the sea breezes, is somewhat relaxing to the system. During the coldest season the ground is but seldom frozen. Next to New Orleans, Mobile is the largest cotton market in the United States.

In 1702, Bienville, the French governor of Louisiana, with forty sailors and some ship carpenters, began the construction of a warehouse on Dauphin Island,

at the entrance of Mobile Bay. He then sailed up the bay, and, at the mouth of Dog River, began the erection of a fort, a warehouse, and other buildings. This place was called Mobile, from the spacious bay upon which it was situated, so named after a tribe of Indians who had resolutely fought De Soto upon the field of Maubila.



North View of St. Louis Wharf, Mobile.

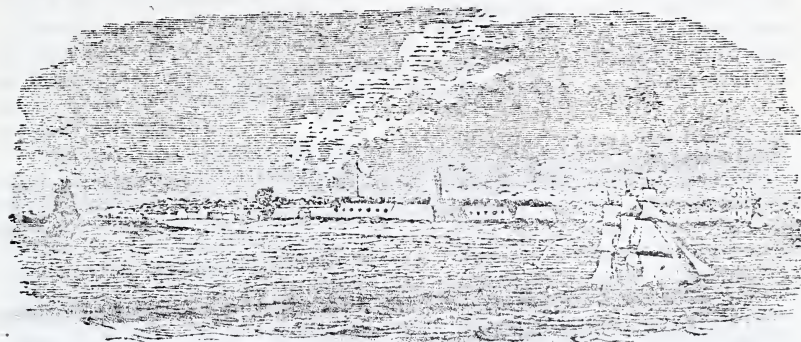
Showing one of the principal wharves for the unloading of cotton and other articles; some of the stores and warehouses appear on the right and the shipping in the distance.

In 1711, all the inhabitants, excepting the garrison at the fort, removed to the Mobile River, and established themselves on the present site of Mobile. In 1763, Mobile was ceded by France to Great Britain. In 1780, it was surrendered to Spain, and in April, 1813, it became a portion of the United States. It was incorporated as a city in 1819.

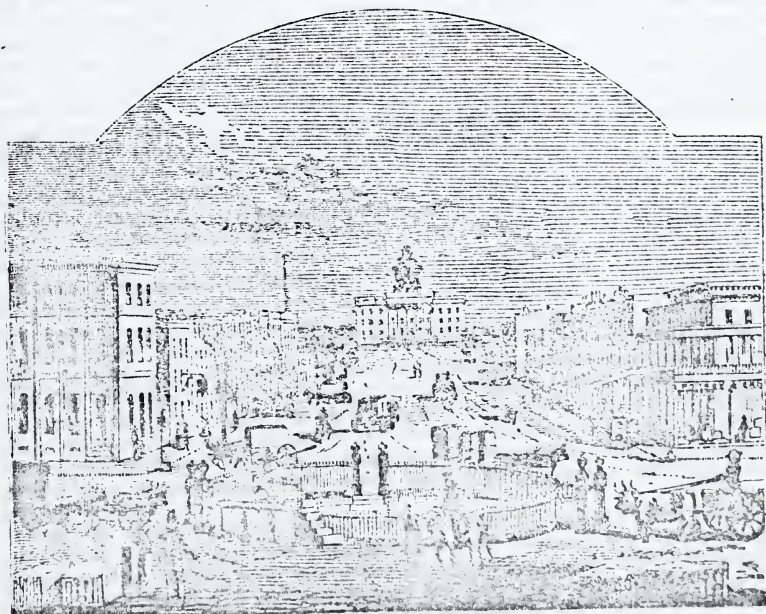
Fort Morgan, formerly Fort Bowyer, stands at the mouth of Mobile Bay. In September, 1814, a British fleet, under Com. Percy, made an attack on the fort, which was defended by Major Lawrence, with 150 men. The British were repulsed with a total loss of 232 men—the American loss 4 killed and 4 wounded. The victory of the Americans at New Orleans forced the British to abandon the banks of the Mississippi, after which they hovered about Mobile Point. Five thousand men landed from their ships and prepared to reduce the fort. Major Lawrence, agreeably to a council of officers, negotiated for a surrender, and the next day, February 12, 1815, marched out of the fort with his little garrison, with colors flying and drums beating. They took quarters on board the British ships-of-the-line as prisoners of war. Soon after the news of peace was received. Great mortality prevailed among the British shipping at this time, from wounds and disease, and hundreds of British soldiers were entombed among the white sands of Mobile Point and Dauphin Island.

MONTGOMERY CITY, the capital of Alabama, is on an elevated bluff on the Alabama River, at the head of steamboat navigation, 118 miles southeasterly from Tuscaloosa, the former capital. There is a continuous line of railroads to New York, Savannah, and Charleston, being 483 miles from the latter place. It

is connected by steamboat navigation with Mobile, from which place it is distant, by the course of the river, 328 miles. Beside the state house, the city contains a court-house, churches for various denominations, and several splendid public edifices. It is in the midst of a fertile cotton region, and commands an extensive trade. Population about 8,000. It was laid out and became the capital of the state in 1817.



Fort Morgan, Mobile Point.



Western View in the Central part of Montgomery.

The reservoir of waste water from the Artesian well is seen in the foreground, in Court Square. The State House, or Capitol, appears in the distance, on elevated ground, at the head of Market-street, about half a mile distant from the Reservoir.

The territory of the present county of Montgomery contained a few white inhabitants as early as 1792. The ancient Indian name for the location on which the city of Montgomery is now built, was *Econchote*, or "Red Earth." The first settlers were traders, who located at the southern suburbs of the city.

The following account of some of the principal events, in this region of country, during the Creek war of 1813-14, is extracted from Perkins' History. The massacre at Fort Mimms, in Aug., 1813, spread consternation and dismay throughout all the settlements in Alabama, and the inhabitants fled without delay to various places for safety. The neighboring states of Tennessee and Georgia were roused to vigorous exertions. A body of 1,800 volunteers, under Gen. Floyd, were marched into the southern section of the Creek Nation, from the state of Georgia. The legislature of Tennessee passed an act to raise 3,500 men to act against the Indians, and \$300,000 were voted to be used to defray the expenses. Generals Jackson and Cocke were appointed commanders.

"The first object to which the troops under General Jackson were directed, was their encampments at the Tallustaches towns, on the Coosa river, a northern branch of the Alabama. On the 2d of November, General Coffee was detached with a part of his brigade of cavalry, and a corps of mounted riflemen, amounting to nine hundred, against this assemblage. He arrived on the morning of the third, and encircled the encampment with his cavalry; when he had approached within half a mile, the Creeks sounded the war-whoop and prepared for action. Captain Hammond and Lieutenant Patterson's companies advanced within the circle and gave a few shots for the purpose of drawing out the enemy. The Creeks formed and made a violent charge. Captain Hammond, according to his orders, gave way, and was pursued by the Indians, until they met the right column, which gave them a general fire, and then charged. The Indians immediately retreated within and behind their buildings, and fought with desperation; but their destruction was soon accomplished. The soldiers rushed up to the doors of their houses, broke them open, and in a few minutes killed the last warrior of them: not one escaped to carry the news. None asked for quarters, but fought as long as they could stand or sit, and met death in various shapes without a groan. Two hundred warriors were killed, eighty-four women and children taken prisoners and discharged; of General Coffee's troops only five were killed, and forty-one wounded.

General Jackson established his head-quarters at the Ten Islands on the Coosa, and fortified his position, giving it the name of Camp Strother. On the evening of the 7th of November, a runner arrived from the friendly Indians at the Tallageda fort, thirty miles below on the same river, giving information that the hostile Creeks had encamped in great force near that place, and were preparing to destroy it, earnestly soliciting immediate assistance. General Jackson determined on commencing his march the same night, and dispatched a runner to General White, informing him of his movement, and urging him to hasten his march to Camp Strother, to protect it in his absence. He had previously ordered General White to form a junction with him as speedily as possible, and received his assurances that he would be with him on the 7th. General Jackson immediately commenced crossing the river at the Ten Islands, leaving his baggage wagons and whatever might retard his progress in the camp, and halted at midnight within six miles of the Tallageda. Here a runner arrived with a note from General White informing him that he had altered his course, and was on his march back to join General Cocke at the mouth of the Chataga.

Battle of Tallageda.—It was then too late for the general to change his plan of operations, or make any new arrangements. He renewed his march at three o'clock, and at sunrise, came within half a mile of his enemy, whom he found encamped a quarter of a mile in advance of the fort. He immediately formed the line of battle; the militia on the left, the volunteers on the right, and the cavalry on the wings; and advanced in a curve, keeping his rear connected with the advance of the infantry line, so as to inclose the enemy in a circle. The advance guard met the attack of the Indians with intrepidity, and having poured upon them four or five rounds, fell back to the main body. The enemy pursued, and were met by the front line. This line was broken, and several companies of militia re-

treated. At this moment a corps of cavalry under Lieutenant Colonel Dyer, which was kept as a reserve, were ordered to dismount and fill the vacancy. The order was promptly executed, the militia soon rallied, and returned to the charge. The fire now became general along the first line and the contiguous wings. The Indians fled, and were met and pursued in every direction. The right wing followed them with a destructive fire to the mountains, three miles distant. Two hundred and ninety of their warriors were found dead, and a large number killed in the pursuit, who were not found. General Jackson lost fifteen men killed, and eighteen wounded. In consequence of the failure of General White to proceed to Camp Strother, General Jackson was obliged to give up further pursuit, and immediately return to his camp to protect his sick, wounded, and baggage."

Gen. White, who considered himself as under the command of Gen. Cocke, was ordered by that officer to attack the Hillabee towns. On the morning of the 18th of November, he surrounded and surprised the town of the Hillabees, killed 60 warriors, took 256 prisoners, and returned to Fort Armstrong without the loss of a man, either killed or wounded. While the Tennessee forces were performing these operations in the northern sections of the Creek country, the Georgia troops, under Gen. Floyd, entered their territory from the east.

"The general, having received information that a number of hostile Indians had assembled at the Autosee towns, on the southern bank of the Talapoosa, eighteen miles from the Hickory ground, and twenty above the junction of that river with the Coosa, proceeded to that place with a corps of nine hundred and fifty militia, and four hundred friendly Indians; and on the morning of the 29th of November, at half past six, appeared in line of battle, in front of the principal town. The Indians presented themselves at every point, and fought with desperate fury. The well directed fire of the artillery, and the charge of the bayonet, soon drove them from the ground, and obliged them to take shelter in the copses, thickets, and out-houses in rear of the town. Many concealed themselves in caves previously provided as places of retreat, along the high bluffs on the river, which were thickly covered with reeds and brush-wood. The friendly Indians were divided into four companies, under leaders of their own choice, and directed to cross Canhabee Creek, and occupy that flank to prevent escapes from the Tallisee town, situated about one hundred rods below the Autosee. Instead of obeying this order, soon after the action commenced, most of them thronged in disorder into the rear of the lines; but the Coveatans under McIntosh, and the Tookabotehians, under Mad Dog's son, joined the flanks of the militia, and fought with a bravery equal to disciplined troops. At nine o'clock, the Indians were completely driven from the plain, and the houses of both towns were in flames. Warriors from eight towns had assembled at Autosee, which their prophets had taught them to believe was holy ground, on which no white man could tread without inevitable destruction. Four hundred buildings were burned, some of which were of a superior cast for the dwellings of savages. The loss of the Indians was estimated at two hundred killed; among whom were the Autosee and Tallisee kings. The number of wounded could not be ascertained, as they were taken off by their friends, but must have been very considerable. General Floyd was severely wounded, and Adjutant General Newman slightly. The whole loss of the Georgians was eleven killed, and fifty-four wounded. The friendly Indians lost several killed and wounded, but their loss was not great, as most of them sought places of safety at the commencement of the action. From the Autosee towns, General Floyd, after resting several days, proceeded to Camp Defiance, fifty miles farther to the west, into the enemy's country. At this place, at 5 o'clock in the morning of the 2d of January, his camp was assailed by a desperate band of hostile Indians, who stole unobserved upon the sentinels, fired on them, and immediately rushed on the lines. In twenty minutes the troops were formed in order of battle, and the action became general. The front and both flanks were closely pressed once, but the skillful conduct of the officers, and firmness of the men, repulsed the enemy at every point."

On January 17, 1814, Gen. Jackson, finding himself in a situation to com-

mence further offensive operations, marched from his encampment at Fort Strother, with 900 volunteers, who were soon afterward joined by 300 friendly Indians. Marching against the Creeks, collected at the great bend of the Tallapoosa, he was attacked by the Indians, on Jan. 22d, at *Emuckfau*, with great fury. Gen. Jackson, being on the alert, encamped his men in a hollow square, stood his ground, and forced the enemy to retire. Being somewhat crippled, and rather short of provisions, Jackson began a retreat to Fort Strother. When at *Enotochopko* Creek, he was again attacked, and he once more succeeded in putting his enemies to flight. In these two conflicts, the American loss was 20 killed and 75 wounded; among the killed were Maj. Donaldson and Capt. Hamilton. The Indians lost at least 189 warriors.

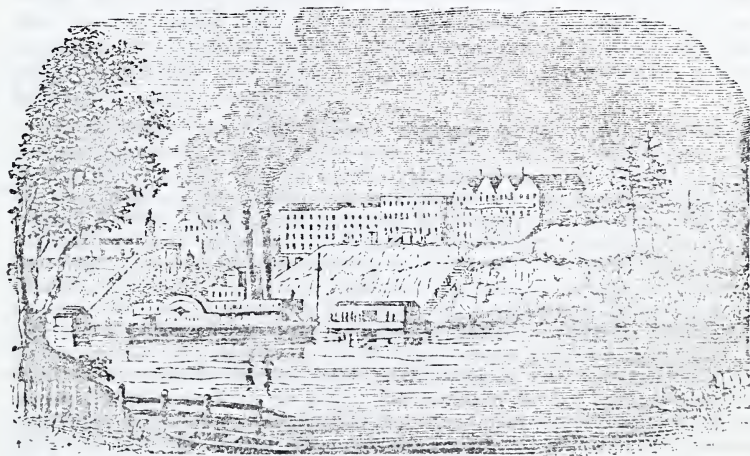
The Creeks still continued to concentrate their forces at the great bend of the Tallapoosa, usually called *Horse Shoe* by the whites, and *Tohopeka* by the Indians, a word in their language said to signify a horse shoe. The peninsula formed by the bend contained about 100 acres, on which was a village of some 200 houses. About 1,000 Indians, from the adjoining districts, had fortified themselves on the peninsula with great skill, having a formidable breastwork built of large logs. They had also an ample supply of provisions and ammunition.

"On the 16th of March, 1814, General Jackson, having received considerable reinforcements of volunteers from Tennessee, and friendly Indians, left Fort Strother with his whole disposable force, amounting to about three thousand of every description, on an expedition against this assemblage of Indians. He proceeded down the Coosa sixty miles to the mouth of Cedar Creek, where he established a post called Fort Williams, and proceeded on the 24th across the ridge of land dividing the waters of the Coosa from the Tallapoosa; and arrived at the great bend on the morning of the 27th, having the three preceding days opened a passage through the wilderness of fifty-two miles. On the 26th he passed the battle ground of the 22d of January, and left it three miles in his rear. General Coffee was detached with seven hundred cavalry, and mounted gunmen, and six hundred friendly Indians, to cross the river below the bend, secure the opposite banks, and prevent escape. Having crossed at the Little Island ford, three miles below the bend, his Indians were ordered silently to approach and line the banks of the river, while the mounted men occupied the adjoining heights, to guard against reinforcements, which might be expected from the Oakfusky towns, eight miles below. Lieutenant Bean, at the same time, was ordered to occupy Little Island, at the fording-place, to secure any that might attempt to escape in that direction. In the mean time, General Jackson, with the artillery and infantry, moved on in slow and regular order to the isthmus, and planted his guns on an eminence one hundred and fifty yards in front of the breastwork. On perceiving that General Coffee had completed his arrangements below, he opened a fire upon the fortification, but found he could make no other impression with his artillery than boring shot-holes through the logs. General Coffee's Indians on the bank, hearing the roaring of the cannon in front, and observing considerable confusion on the peninsula, supposing the battle to be nearly won, crossed over and set fire to the village, and attacked the Creeks in the rear. At this moment General Jackson ordered an assault upon the works in front. The regular troops, led by Colonel Williams, accompanied by a part of the militia of General Dougherty's brigade, led on by Colonel Russell, presently got possession of a part of the works, and a tremendous fire from behind them. The advance guard was led by Colonel Sisler, and the left extremity of the line by Captain Gordon of the spies, and Captain M'Marry of General Johnson's brigade of West Tennessee militia. The battle for a short time was obstinate, and fought musket to musket through the port-holes; when the assailants succeeded in getting possession of the opposite side of the works, and the contest ended. The Creeks were entirely routed, and the whole margin of the river strewed with the slain. The troops under General Jackson, and General Coffee's Indians, who had crossed over into the peninsula, continued the work of destruction as long as there was a Creek

to be found. General Coffee, on seeing his Indians crossing over, had ordered their places to be supplied on the bank by his riflemen; and every Indian that attempted to escape by swimming the river, or crossing the Little Island below, was met and slain by General Coffee's troops. The battle, as long as any appearance of resistance remained, lasted five hours; the slaughter continued until dark, and was renewed the next morning, when sixteen more of the unfortunate savages were hunted out of their hiding-places and slain. Five hundred and fifty-seven warriors were found dead on the peninsula; among whom was their famous prophet Manahell, and two others, the principal instigators of the war; two hundred and fifty more were estimated to have been killed in crossing the river, and at other places, which were not found. General Jackson's loss was twenty-six white men, and twenty-three Indians, killed; and one hundred and seven white men, and forty-seven Indians, wounded.

This decisive victory put an end to the Creek war. In the short period of five months, from the first of November to the first of April, two thousand of their warriors, among whom were their principal prophets and kings, had been slain, most of their towns and villages burned, and the strong places in their territory occupied by the United States troops. After this battle, the miserable remnant of the hostile tribes submitted. Weatherford, the principal surviving chief and prophet, who led the Indians at Fort Mimms, accompanied his surrender with this address to General Jackson:

"I fought at Fort Mimms—I fought the Georgia army—I did you all the injury I could. Had I been supported as I was promised, I would have done you more. But my warriors are all killed. I can fight no longer. I look back with sorrow that I have brought destruction upon my nation. I am now in your power. Do with me as you please. I am a soldier."



Eastern View of Selma.

The above shows the appearance of Selma steamboat landing, as it is approached sailing down the river; on the right, on the elevated limestone banks, is seen the commencement of the Alabama and Tennessee Railroad, also the apparatus for conveying coal to the boats below. The warehouses for cotton, etc., from which cotton bales are conveyed by slides to the steamboats, appear in the central part.

SELMA. Dallas county, on the right bank of the Alabama River, is situated 82 miles westward of Montgomery, by the river, and 10 miles above Cahaba, and about 150 above Mobile. It has about 4000 inhabitants, and several iron foundries and other manufacturing establishments. Two railroads, the Alabama and Mississippi and the Alabama and Tennessee River, diverge from this place. It is situated in the midst of a fertile cotton growing section, and large quantities of cotton are shipped at this point.

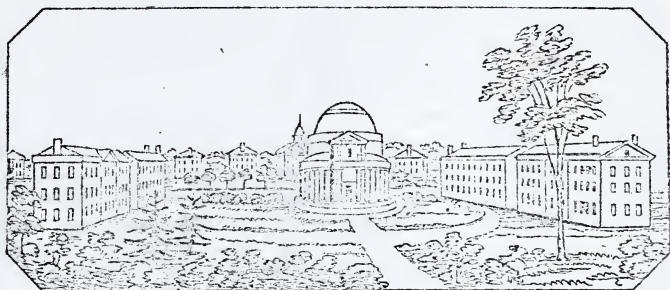
MARION, the capital of Perry county, is situated 26 miles N. from Selma, with which it is connected by railroad. It is in an elevated, broken, and dry region, distant from any river, creek, or swamp, and is remarkable for salubrity. The village contains about three thousand inhabitants.

At the commencement of hostilities with Great Britain in 1812, Tecumseh, the celebrated Shawnee chieftain, visited the southern Indians, and by his arts of persuasion induced them to take up arms against the United States. Gen. Claiborne, who was appointed to the defense of the country in the vicinity of Mobile, proceeded to Fort Stoddard, situated on the Mobile River, upward of forty miles above its mouth. From this point he sent the soldiers under his command to defend the settlements. The inhabitants of the Tensaw district, on the Alabama, fled to Fort Mimms, on that river, about 16 miles above. This fort was built about the residence of Samuel Mimms, a mile east from the Alabama River, and two miles below the cut-off. It was garrisoned by 150 soldiers, under Major Beasley; these, with the white settlers, the friendly Indians, and negroes, amounted to 553 persons, who were crowded together in an Alabama swamp, in the month of August. About 1000 Creek warriors stole up near the fort, and there lay in ambush, ready for a bloody onset: among their leaders was the celebrated *Weatherford*. On the 30th of August, 1813, in an unsuspecting moment, while the soldiers were about dining, the Indians issued from their hiding-places and advanced to within a few rods before the alarm was given.

"As the sentinel cried out 'Indians,' they gave a war-whoop, and rushed in at the gate, before the garrison had time to shut it. This decided their fate. Major Beasley was mortally wounded at the commencement of the assault; he ordered his men to secure the ammunition, and retreat into the house; he was himself carried into the kitchen, and afterward consumed in the flames. The fort was originally square, but Major Beasley had enlarged it by extending the lines upon two sides about fifty feet, and putting up a new side, into which the gate was removed; the old lines of pickets were standing, and the Indians, on rushing in at the gate, obtained possession of the outer part, and through the port holes of the old line of pickets, fired on the people who held the interior. On the opposite side of the fort was an offset or bastion made round the back gate, which, being open on the outside, was occupied by the Indians, who, with the axes that lay scattered about, cut down the gate. The people in the fort kept possession of the port holes on the other lines, and fired on the Indians who remained on the outside. Some of the Indians ascended the block-house at one of the corners, and fired on the garrison below, but were soon dislodged; they succeeded, however, in setting fire to a house near the pickets, which communicated to the kitchen, and from thence to the main dwelling-house. When the people in the fort saw the Indians in full possession of the outer court, the gate open, the men fast falling, and their houses in flames, they gave up all for lost, and a scene of the most distressing horror ensued. The women and children sought refuge in the upper story of the dwelling house, and were consumed in the flames, the Indians dancing and yelling round them with the most savage delight. Those who were without the buildings were murdered and scalped without distinction of age or sex; seventeen only escaped. The battle and massacre lasted from eleven in the forenoon until six in the afternoon, by which time the work of destruction was fully completed, the fort and buildings entirely demolished, and upward of four hundred, men, women, and children massacred.

"General Claiborne dispatched Major Joseph P. Kennedy, with a strong detachment to Fort Mimms, from his headquarters at Mount Vernon, for the purpose

of burying the dead. Upon arriving there, Kennedy found the air darkened with buzzards, and hundreds of dogs, which had run wild, gnawing upon the human carcasses. The troops, with heavy hearts, succeeded in interring many bodies in two large pits, which they dug. Indians, negroes, white men, women, and children, lay in one promiscuous ruin. All were scalped, and the females of every age were butchered in a manner which neither decency nor language permit me to describe. The main building was burned to ashes, which were filled with bones. The plains and woods around were covered with dead bodies. All the houses were consumed by fire, except the block-house, and a part of the pickets. The soldiers and officers, with one voice, called on Divine Providence to revenge the death of our murdered friends."



Outline View of the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.

William Weatherford, one of the most conspicuous war chiefs of the Creek Confederacy, was born in the Creek Nation: his father was an itinerant pedlar and his mother a full blooded Indian of the Seminole tribe. He is said to have possessed the bad qualities of both his parents, combined with many traits peculiarly his own. In person he was tall, strait, and well proportioned. His judgment and eloquence had secured the respect of the old; his vices made him the idol of the young and unprincipled. During the war of 1812 he entered fully into the views of Tecumseh, and was the principal leader at the massacre at Fort Mimms. After the final defeat, at the battle of the Horse-shoe, he voluntarily came into the camp of Gen. Jackson; it was on this occasion that he made his celebrated speech

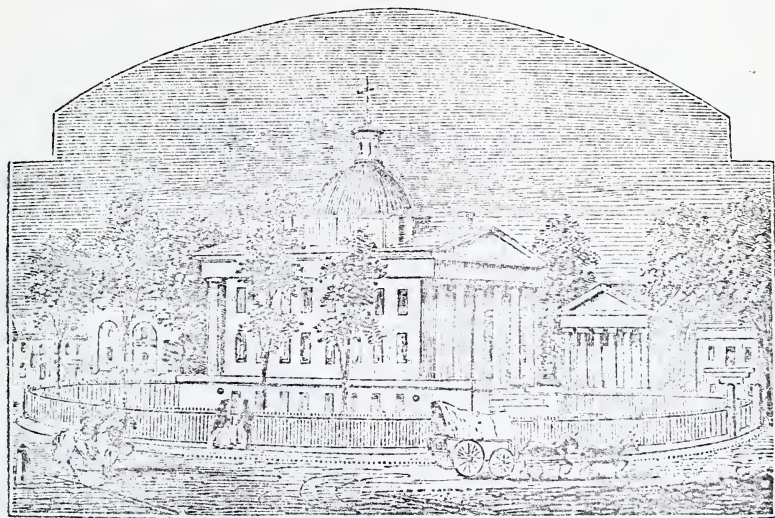
"I am in your power—do with me as you please—I am a soldier. I have done the whites all the harm I could. I have fought them, and fought them bravely. If I had an army, I would yet fight—I would contend to the last; but I have none. My people are all gone. I can only weep over the misfortunes of my nation."

General Jackson was pleased with his boldness, and told him that though he was in his power, yet he would take no advantage; that he might yet join the war party, and contend against the Americans, if he chose, but to depend upon no quarter if taken afterward; and that unconditional submission was his and his people's only safety. Weatherford replied, in a tone as dignified as indignant:

"You can safely address me in such terms now. There was a time when I could have answered you—there was a time when I had a choice—I have none now. I have not even a hope. I could once animate my warriors to battle—but I can not animate the dead. My warriors can no longer hear my voice. Their bones are at Talladega, Tallushatchee, Enekefaw, and Tohopeka. I have not surrendered myself without thought. While there was a single chance of success, I never left my post, nor supplicated peace. But my people are gone, and I now ask it for my nation, not for myself. I look back with deep sorrow, and wish to avert still greater calamities. If I had been left to contend with the Georgia army, I would have raised my corn on one bank of the river, and fought them on the other. But your people have destroyed my nation. You are a brave man. I rely upon your generosity. You will exact no terms of a conquered people, but such as they should accede to. Whatever they may be, it would now be madness and folly to oppose them. If they are opposed, you shall find me amongst the sternest enforcers of obedience. Those who would still hold out, can be influenced only by a mean spirit of revenge. To this they must not, and shall not sacrifice the last remnant of their country. You have told our nation where we might go and be safe. This is good talk, and they ought to listen to it. They shall listen to it."

After the war was over, he became a citizen of Monroe county.

TUSCALOOSA is situated on the S. E. side of Black Warrior River, 94 N. W. of Montgomery, 129 S. W. of Huntsville, and 217 from Mobile. It is regularly built, on an elevated plain at the lower falls of the river, at the head of steamboat navigation, and until 1847 was the capital of the state. It contains the old state house, the University of Alabama; population about 3,000. The University of Alabama went into operation in 1831.



View of the Public Square, Huntsville.

The engraving shows the Court House in the center; on the right, in the distance, appears the front of the Northern Bank of Alabama.

HUNTSVILLE, the shire town of Madison county, one of the most beautiful and well built places in the Southern States, is on the line of the Charleston and Memphis railroad, about 10 miles N. of the Tennessee River, 217 N. from Montgomery, and 211 from Memphis, Tenn. It has many handsome private dwellings, and presents many attractions for a permanent residence. Population about 5,000. Huntsville received its name from Capt. John Hunt, a revolutionary soldier, the first settler, who located himself near the spring which supplies the city.

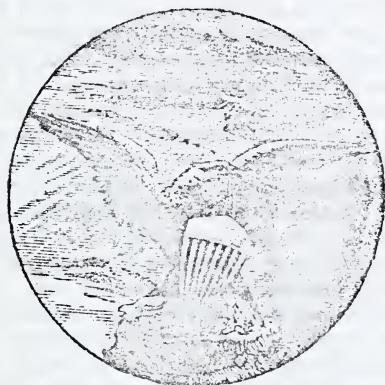
Wetumpka is on the E. side of Coosa River, 13 miles northeasterly from Montgomery. It has a fine site, at the head of steamboat navigation, and is a place of considerable trade. The state penitentiary was located here in October, 1851. Population about 3,000. The *Harrougate Springs*, in the south border of the city, are much resorted to during the summer months.

Florence, the capital of Lauderdale county, was laid out in 1818. It is on the N. side of the Tennessee River, immediately below the Muscle Shoals, and 197 miles N. W. of Montgomery. It is on an elevated plain, 100 feet above the river, which, when full, is navigable for steamboats to the Ohio. Population about 2,000.

Tuscumbia is on the left bank of the Tennessee, five miles below Florence, and 346 miles N. from Mobile. It is on the line of the Charleston and Memphis railroad, 144 miles east from Memphis. Population 3,000.

MISSISSIPPI.

THE name of this state is from the Indian words *Meach-Chassippi*, signifying "Father of Rivers." The first Europeans who traversed its soil were



ARMS OF MISSISSIPPI.

De Soto and his followers, in their celebrated expedition in search of gold, about the year 1540. The Indians inhabiting its territory were the *Choctaws*, *Chickasaws*, *Natchez*, etc. For a great part of the time until the cession of 1763, most of these tribes or nations were in a state of warfare with the white intruders. La Salle, descending the rivers from the Illinois country, in 1631, visited the part of the state bordering on the Mississippi, but the first attempt to found permanent settlements on this river were made, in 1698, by Ibberville, the governor of Louisiana. His colony arrived at Ship Island in 1700, and after exploring along and beyond the Mis-

issippi, the parties returned and built a fort at Biloxi, at the mouth of a river of that name, about 20 miles N. of the island.

In 1716, Bienville, one of the governors of Louisiana, sailed up the Mississippi as far as Natchez, erected and garrisoned a fortification, which he called "*Fort Rosalie*." This spot had been marked down by Ibberville, in 1700, as an eligible site for a town, of which he drew a plan, and which he called *Rosalie*, the maiden name of the Countess Ponchartrain, of France.

In 1729, the Natchez Indians formed a conspiracy against the French colonists, by whom they considered themselves aggrieved. On the 28th of November, they fell upon the inhabitants by surprise, and about 700 hundred Frenchmen were massacred. The French governor of Louisiana, M. Perier, resolved on avenging the massacre, sent to the Choctaws, who furnished a body of about 1,600 warriors to assist the French against the Natchez. The Natchez, being besieged in their fort by the French, had the address, during the night, to make their escape. Learning afterward, that they had fortified themselves west of the Mississippi, the French followed them thither, and compelled them to surrender. They were taken to New

Orleans, and afterward transported as slaves to St. Domingo. Thus perished the Natchez nation, "the most illustrious in Louisiana."

The Chickasaws were the dread of the French colonists, as they had incited the Natchez against them. They occupied a large and beautiful tract east of the Mississippi, at the head of the Tombigbee. This they would not allow the French to settle, but maintained their independence. In 1736, a force from New Orleans, under Bienville, sailed for Mobile in thirty barges and thirty large pirogues. Proceeding up the Tombigbee, they were joined by 1,200 Choctaw warriors, and the combined force moved up to the present site of Cotton-gin Port, nearly five hundred miles, by the river, from Mobile, to within about 27 miles of the stronghold of the Chickasaws, in the present county of Pontotoc. Having completed a stockade, and left a guard, Bienville advanced against the enemy. As they came in sight of the Chickasaw fort, on the 26th of May, the British flag was seen waving over its walls, and it was known that British traders were in the fort conducting the defense.

The French column advanced to the assault, with the cheering shout of "*Vive le Roi.*" Twice during the day was the assault renewed with fire and sword, but they were repulsed by the terrible fire from the fort, and having lost about 100 men, in killed and wounded, Bienville soon after broke up his encampment and took up the retrograde line of march. Having dismissed the Choctaws with presents, he threw his cannon into the Tombigbee, and floated down the river to Fort Conde, and from thence to New Orleans.

One important part of the plan of the campaign against the Chickasaws, was to have the co-operation of a force of French and Indians from Canada. D'Artaguet, the pride and flower of the French at the north, procured the aid of "*Chicago*," the Illinois chief from the shore of Lake Michigan. His lieutenant was the gallant *Vincennes*, from the settlement on the Wabash. These heroes came down the river unobserved to the last Chickasaw bluff, and from thence penetrated into the heart of the country. On the 10th of May, they encamped, it is supposed, about six miles east of the present town of Pontotoc, near the appointed place of rendezvous with the force of Bienville. Having waited for some time in vain for intelligence from the chief commander, the Indian allies of D'Artaguet became impatient for war and plunder, and could not be restrained, when D'Artaguet consented to lead them to the attack. He drove the Chickasaws from two of their fortified villages, but was severely wounded in his attack on the third. His allies, the red men of Illinois, dismayed at this check, fled precipitately, and D'Artaguet was left weltering in his blood. Vincennes, his lieutenant, and the Jesuit Senat, their spiritual guide and friend, refusing to fly, shared the captivity of their gallant leader. They were treated with great care and attention by the Chickasaws, who were in hopes of obtaining a great ransom from Bienville, then advancing into their country. After his retreat, the Chickasaws, despairing of receiving anything for their prisoners, tortured and burnt them over a slow fire, leaving but one alive to relate their fate to their countrymen.

In 1763, France relinquished to Great Britain all her possessions east of the Mississippi, and to Spain all west of that river, and also the Island of Orleans. Spain, at the same time, gave up Florida to the British. In 1783, the country north of the parallel of 31° north latitude, was included in the limits of the United States, by the treaty acknowledging their independence, and the Floridas reverted to the Spanish crown. By its charter, the Georgia limits extended to the Mississippi. In 1795, its legislature sold 22,000,000

acres of land in Mississippi, called the *Yazoo purchase*, to four companies, for \$500,000, who afterward sold it, at advanced prices, to various persons, mostly in the eastern and middle states. The next year the legislature declared the sale unconstitutional, and ordered the records of it to be burnt. The southern section of the state was within the limits of Florida, and was purchased of Spain in 1821. In 1798, a large part of the area now comprising the states of Mississippi and Alabama, constituted the "Mississippi Territory." In 1817, the state of Mississippi was admitted into the Union.

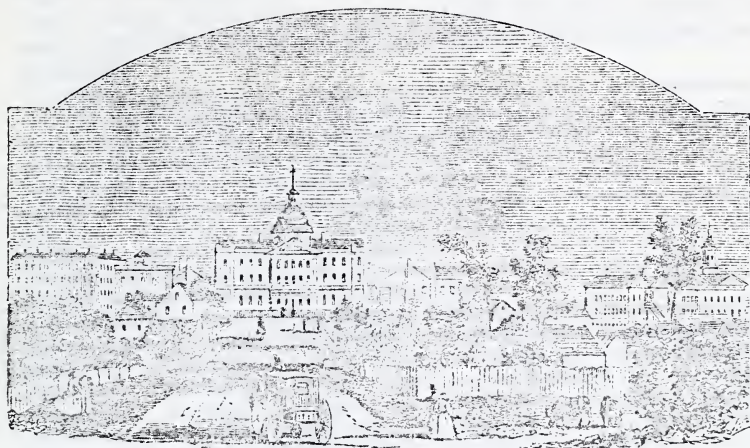
Mississippi is situated between $30^{\circ} 10'$ and 35° N. Lat., and between $80^{\circ} 30'$ and $81^{\circ} 35'$ W. Long. It is 339 miles long from N. to S., and 150 broad, containing 47,151 square miles. The southern part of the state, for about 100 miles from the Gulf shore, is mostly a sandy level pine forest, interspersed with cypress swamps, open prairies, and a few slight elevations. There are no mountains within the limits of the state, only numerous ranges of hills of moderate elevation, some of which terminate abruptly upon a level plain, or upon the banks of a river, bearing the name of "*bluffs*," or river hills. The Mississippi River, in its various windings, forms the entire western boundary of the state, and most of the lands bordering it, from the northern line to the entrance of Yazoo River, consist of inundated swamps, covered with a large growth of timber. From Memphis, just above the northern line of Mississippi to Vicksburg, a distance of 450 miles by the river, the uplands, or river hills, are separated by inundated bottom lands of greater or less width, and afford no site suitable for a port. Below Vicksburg, the only eligible port is Natchez, 100 miles south.

The country in the south part of the state is rolling, healthy, and productive. The Yazoo is the largest river that has its whole course in the state, and the lands drained by it are very fertile. The coast, which extends along the Gulf of Mexico for about 60 miles, has no harbor for large vessels. A chain of low sand islands, six or seven miles from the shore, inclose several bays or sounds: the largest are Pascagoula Sound and Lake Borgne. Ship and Cat Islands are eligible for ocean steamers. The ports on the Mississippi are Vicksburg, Grand Gulf, and Natchez. The great staple of the state is cotton. Indian corn, rice, tobacco, hemp, etc., are also important productions. The fig and orange grow well in the lower part of the state, and the apple tree flourishes in the higher hilly regions. Population, in 1800, 8,859; in 1820, 75,448; in 1840, 275,651; in 1850, 606,555; and in 1860, 837,258, of whom 479,607 were slaves.

JACKSON, the capital of Mississippi, is about 40 miles east of Vicksburg, with which it is connected by a railroad. It is on the left bank of Pearl River, which is navigable to this place for small steamboats. It contains the state buildings, and has about 4,000 inhabitants.

NATCHEZ is on the E. bank of the Mississippi, 87 miles S. W. from Jackson, the capital of the state, and from New Orleans, by the river, 309 miles, but in a direct line 127 miles. This is usually considered the principal city of the state, its importance arising from its being the depot of cotton, the product of the lands around it, and from being also one of the main entrepôts of the internal commerce of Mississippi. The principal part of the city is built on a clayey bluff, about 150 feet high. *Natchez under the Hill*, as it is called, is

that part which lies upon the margin of the river, consisting of warehouses, stores, shops, etc., for the accommodation of the landing. The city contains about 7,000 inhabitants. It has long been considered one of the most beautiful places on the Lower Mississippi.



Southern View of Jackson (Central Part.)

The view shows the southern front of the State House. The Governor's House is seen a little to the left also the Bowman House.



Western view of Natchez.

The buildings near the shore comprise "Natchez under the Hill"; part of the city above appears on the bluff. The City Hotel and part of the promenade grounds on the edge of the precipitous cliffs are seen on the left. The passage to the landing appears in the central part.

Natchez was a very important point in the early history of Mississippi.

In the year 1700, Iberville, the first colonist of Louisiana, ascended the Mississippi 400 miles, as far as the Natchez tribe, on a voyage of exploration. Here he selected an elevated bluff as the site for the future capital of the province. It was the bluff where the city of Natchez now stands: this place he named Rosalie. He was highly pleased with the Natchez tribe and their country. This tribe was very powerful and highly improved, and in many particulars differed from the neighboring tribes with whom they were in alliance.

"Their religion, in some respects, resembled that of the fire-worshippers of Persia. Fire was the emblem of their divinity; the sun was their god: their chiefs were called "suns," and their king was called the "Great Sun." In their principal temple a perpetual fire was kept burning by the ministering priest, who likewise offered sacrifices of the first fruits of the chase. In extreme cases, they offered sacrifices of infant children, to appease the wrath of the deity. When Iberville was there, one of the temples was struck by lightning and set on fire. The keeper of the fane solicited the squaws to throw their little ones into the fire to appease the angry divinity, and four infants were thus sacrificed before the French could prevail on them to desist from the horrid rites.

After Iberville reached the Natchez tribe, the Great Sun, or king of the confederacy, having heard of the approach of the French commandant, determined to pay him a visit in person. As he advanced to the quarters of Iberville, he was borne upon the shoulders of some of his men, and attended by a great retinue of his people. He bade Iberville a hearty welcome, and showed him the most marked attention and kindness during his stay. A treaty of friendship was concluded, with permission to build a fort and to establish a trading-post among them; which was, however, deferred for many years."

A few stragglers soon after took up their abode among the Natchez; but no regular settlement was made until 1716, when Bienville, governor of Louisiana, erected Fort Rosalie, which is supposed to have stood near the eastern limit of the present city of Natchez.

Grand or Great Sun, the chief of the Natchez, was at first the friend of the whites, until the overbearing disposition of one man brought destruction on the whole colony. The residence of the *Great Sun* was a beautiful village, called the *White Apple*. This village spread over a space of nearly three miles in extent, and stood about twelve miles south of the fort, near the mouth of Second Creek, and three miles east of the Mississippi. M. de Chopart, the commandant, was guilty of great injustice toward the Indians, and went so far as to command the "Great Sun" to leave the village of his ancestors, as he wanted the ground for his own purposes. The Great Sun, finding Chopart deaf to all his entreaties, formed a plot to rid his country of the tyrant who oppressed them. Previous to the tragedy, the Sieur de Mace, ensign of the garrison, received advice of the intention of the Natchez, through a young Indian girl who loved him. She told him, crying, that her nation intended to massacre the French. Amazed at this story, he questioned his mistress. Her simple answers, and her tender tears, left him no room to doubt of the plot. He informed Chopart of it, who forthwith put him under arrest for giving a false alarm. The following is from Monette's History of the Valley of Mississippi:

"At length the fatal day arrived. It was Nov. 29, 1729. Early in the morning Great Sun repaired, with a few chosen warriors, to Fort Rosalie, and all were well armed with knives and other concealed weapons.

The company had recently sent up a large supply of powder and lead, and provisions for the use of the post. The Indians had recourse to stratagem to procure a supply of ammunition, pretending that they were preparing for a great hunting excursion. Before they set out they wished to purchase a supply of ammunition,

and they had brought corn and poultry to barter for powder and lead. Having placed the garrison off their guard, a number of Indians were permitted to enter the fort, and others were distributed about the company's warehouse. Upon a certain signal from the Great Sun, the Indians immediately drew their concealed weapons, and commenced the carnage by one simultaneous and furious massacre of the garrison, and all who were in and near the warehouse.

Other parties, distributed through the contiguous settlements, carried on the bloody work in every house as soon as the smoke was seen to rise from the houses near the fort.

The massacre commenced at nine o'clock in the morning, and before noon the whole of the male population of the French colony on St. Catharine (consisting of about seven hundred souls) were sleeping the sleep of death. The slaves were spared for the service of the victors, and the females and children were reserved as prisoners of war. Chopart fell among the first victims; and, as the chiefs disdained to stain their hands with his despised blood, he was dispatched by the hand of a common Indian. Two mechanics, a tailor and a carpenter, were spared, because they might be useful to the Indians.

While the massacre was progressing, the Great Sun seated himself in the spacious warehouse of the company, and, with apparent unconcern and complacency, sat and smoked his pipe while his warriors were depositing the heads of the French garrison in a pyramid at his feet. The head of Chopart was placed in the center, surmounting those of his officers and soldiers. So soon as the warriors informed the Great Sun that the last Frenchman had ceased to live, he commanded the pillage to commence. The negro slaves were employed in bringing out the plunder for distribution. The powder and military stores were reserved for public use in future emergencies.

While the ardent spirits remained, the day and the night alike presented one continued scene of savage triumph and drunken revelry. With horrid yells they spent their orgies in dancing over the mangled bodies of their enemies, which lay strewed in every quarter where they had fallen in the general carnage. Here, unburied, they remained a prey for dogs and hungry vultures. Every vestige of the houses and dwellings in all the settlements were reduced to ashes.

Two soldiers only, who happened to be absent in the woods at the time of the massacre, escaped to bear the melancholy tidings to New Orleans. As they approached the fort and heard the deafening yells of the savages, and saw the columns of smoke and flame ascending from the buildings, they well judged the fate of their countrymen. They concealed themselves until they could procure a boat or canoe to descend the river to New Orleans, where they arrived a few days afterward, and told the sad story of the colony on the St. Catharine.

The same fate was shared by the colony on the Yazoo, near Fort St. Peter, and by those on the Washita, at Sicily Island, and near the present town of Monroe. Dismay and terror were spread over every settlement in the province. New Orleans was filled with mourning and sadness for the fate of friends and countrymen.

The whole number of victims slain in this massacre amounted to more than two hundred men, besides a few women and some negroes, who attempted to defend their masters. Ninety-two women and one hundred and fifty-five children were taken prisoners. Among the victims were Father Poisson, the Jesuit missionary; Laboite, the principal agent of the company; M. Kollys and son, who had purchased M. Hubert's interest, and had just arrived to take possession."

When the news of this terrible disaster reached New Orleans, the French commenced a war of extermination against the Natchez. The tribe eventually were driven across the Mississippi, and finally scattered and extirpated. The Great Sun and his principal war chiefs, falling into the hands of the French, were shipped to St. Domingo and sold as slaves. Some of the poor prisoners were treated with excessive cruelty, four of the men and two of the women were publicly burned to death at New Orleans. Some Tonica Indians, who had brought down a Natchez woman, whom they had discov-

ered in the woods, were allowed to execute her in the same manner. The unfortunate woman was led forth to a platform erected near the levee, and, surrounded by the whole population, was slowly consumed by the flames! She supported her tortures with stoical fortitude, not shedding a tear. "On the contrary," says Gayarre, "she upbraided her torturers with their want of skill, flinging at them every opprobrious epithet she could think of."

"The scattered remnants of the tribe sought an asylum among the Chickasaws and other tribes who were hostile to the French. Since that time, the individuality of the Natchez tribe has been swallowed up in the nations with whom they were incorporated. Yet no tribe has left so proud a memorial of their courage, their independent spirit, and their contempt of death in defense of their rights and liberties. The city of Natchez is their monument, standing upon the field of their glory. Such is the brief history of the Natchez Indians, who are now considered extinct. In refinement and intelligence, they were equal, if not superior, to any other tribe north of Mexico. In courage and stratagem they were inferior to none. Their form was noble and commanding; their stature was seldom under six feet, and their persons were straight and athletic. Their countenance indicated more intelligence than is commonly found in savages. The head was compressed from the os frontis to the occiput, so that the forehead appeared high and retreating, while the occiput was compressed almost in a line with the neck and shoulders. This peculiarity, as well as their straight, erect form, is ascribed to the pressure of bandages during infancy. Some of the remaining individuals of the Natchez tribe were in the town of Natchez as late as the year 1782, or more than half a century after the Natchez massacre."

By the peace of 1763, the Natchez District came into possession of Great Britain, and the next year it was included in West Florida. In 1783, when Florida was ceded to Spain, Natchez came under the dominion of that power. In 1796, by the treaty of Madrid, the Natchez district was ceded to the United States. That treaty defined the boundary of the Floridas to be the thirty-first parallel of north latitude, from the Mississippi eastward to the Chattahoochee River; thence along a line running due east from the mouth of Flint River to the head of St. Mary's River, and thence down the middle of that river to the Atlantic Ocean. This left to Spain, west of the present boundary of Florida, a narrow strip along the Gulf of Mexico, of about 60 miles in width, of the present states of Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana, to the Mississippi, beside all of the present Florida and a strip of about 25 miles in width of the present southern part of Georgia. Spain was forced to this cession through her political embarrassments, and, from the delay in abandoning the territory, it was evident she had hopes that circumstances would arise which would enable her to retain possession. Foiled in her intrigues to accomplish this end, the Spanish governor general at New Orleans, in January, 1798, ordered the evacuation of the only Spanish forts remaining, Natchez and Nogales. The post at the mouth of Wolf River, near the present site of Memphis, had been evacuated the preceding autumn.

On the 29th of March, 1798, about midnight, the Spanish drums in the fort at Natchez sounded the note of preparation, and before morning the garrison had embarked on the Mississippi, on their way to New Orleans. On the 7th of the following month, the territory surrendered, comprising the present states of Mississippi and Alabama, north of the 31st parallel of north latitude, was erected into the Mississippi Territory, and on the 10th of May, organized a territorial government. Winthrop Sargent, the first territorial governor, and the territorial judges, arrived at Natchez the following August, and proceeded to establish the government. General Wilkinson also arrived with the Federal troops, and established his headquarters

at Natchez. Soon after he founded the present Fort Adams, on the Mississippi, six miles above the Florida line.

In 1801, Gov. Sargent was succeeded by Wm. C. C. Claiborne as governor of the territory, which at that time had about 12,000 inhabitants, of whom some 2,000 were slaves. The next year the seat of the territorial government was removed to the town of Washington.

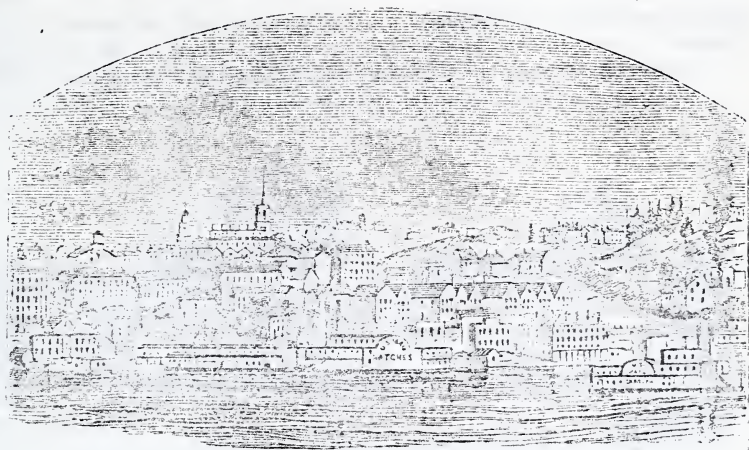
On the 10th of March, 1803, Natchez received a city charter from the territorial legislature. It was then a large village, consisting chiefly of small wooden buildings of one story, distributed over an irregular, undulating surface, with but little regard to system or cleanliness. The year previous, the Natchez Gazette, the first newspaper in Mississippi, was established by Col. Andrew Marschalk, who had been an officer in Wayne's army. This paper, under different forms and names, was published by this father of the press in Mississippi for nearly forty years afterward.

Previous to the extension of the American jurisdiction over the Natchez district, the Catholic powers forbade Protestant worship, hence public preaching was unknown. The first Protestant preacher was Tobias Gibson, of the South Carolina Conference, who arrived at Natchez in the summer of 1799, and proceeded to organize societies at Washington, Kingston, on Cole's Creek near Greenville, and on the Bayou Pierre. After his death he was succeeded, in 1806, by Learner Blackburn. Thus was Methodism first introduced into the territory. Rev. Mr. Bowman, also a Methodist, settled in Natchez in 1803. In 1802 came the first Presbyterian missionaries, Messrs. Hall and Montgomery, the first of whom labored several years at Natchez. In 1802 came David Cooper, the first Baptist missionary, to Natchez, and also, about the same time, Rev. Dr. Cloud, of the Episcopal church.

"The Mississippi Territory, for several years afterward, with its wide extent of Indian country, was traversed by only three principal roads, or horse-paths. These were, first, the road from the Cumberland settlements through the Chickasaw and Choctaw nations to the Natchez District; second, from Knoxville through the Cherokee and Creek nations, by way of the Tombigbee, to Natchez; third, that from the Oconee settlements of Georgia, by way of Fort Stoddard, to Natchez and New Orleans. The Chickasaw, or *Nashville Trace*, was frequented more than any other, it being the traveled route for the return journeys of all the Ohio boatmen and traders from New Orleans and Natchez."

Natchez was the residence of Hon. Sergeant S. Prentiss and Gen. John A. Quitman, each of whom, in their time, were men of national reputation. Mr. Prentiss was born in Portland, Maine, in 1810, and at eighteen years of age settled in Natchez, where he studied law and became the acknowledged head of his profession in this region. As a jury lawyer he had no equal in the southwest, and he was one of the most brilliant of stump orators. In 1838 and 1839, he was a representative in congress. He died in 1850, at the age of 40 years, and is buried near the city. Gen. Quitman was born in Dutchess county, New York, in 1799, was educated for the bar, and when about twenty-one years of age he removed to Natchez. About the year 1840, he was appointed judge of the high court of errors and appeals. He was a major general in the Mexican war, and gained great credit in several battles. In 1850, he was elected governor of Mississippi, and afterward served in congress, where he was at the head of the committee on military affairs. His strict integrity and kindness of heart won him troops of friends among all parties. He was spoken of often as the Democratic candidate for vice president, and was the recognized leader of those favorable to the annexation of Cuba. He died in July, 1858.

VICKSBURG, so named from Mr. Vicks, an extensive landholder, is on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, 41 miles W. from Jackson, and by the river, 513 from New Orleans. The city is principally built on a bluff, broken into several eminences, and elevated about 200 feet above the river. The buildings are situated on and among the shelving declivities of the hills, and the



View of Vicksburg, from the West bank of the Mississippi.

The view shows the appearance of the central part of Vicksburg, as seen from the Louisiana side of the Mississippi. The Car House of the Jackson R.R. is on the right. The Catholic and some other churches are seen on the heights in the central part.

many clusters of dwellings present a picturesque appearance. The city contains the usual public buildings, several academies, five churches, and about 4,500 inhabitants. It was incorporated as a town in 1825, and as a city in 1836. Great quantities of cotton are annually shipped from this place to New Orleans and elsewhere. The surrounding country is remarkably fertile, well adapted to the culture of cotton, grain, etc. The *Walnut Hills*, between two and three miles from the city, rise to an elevation of 500 feet above the river.

OXFORD, the capital of Lafayette county, is on the line of the Central railroad, in the northern part of the state. It is considered one of the healthiest places in Mississippi, and is noted as the seat of the University of Mississippi. This institution is about a mile from the village, and the buildings are excellent. Its origin was a grant of 36 sections of land given for this purpose, by Congress, in 1819.

COLUMBUS, the shire town of Lowndes county, is on the left bank of the Tombigbee, at an elevation of 120 feet above the river, at the ordinary head of steamboat navigation, 150 N.E. from Jackson, and, by the river, 480 miles from Mobile. It has about 4,000 inhabitants.

Aberdeen, on the right bank of the Tombigbee, 25 miles from Columbus, is the center and shipping place for a fertile region.

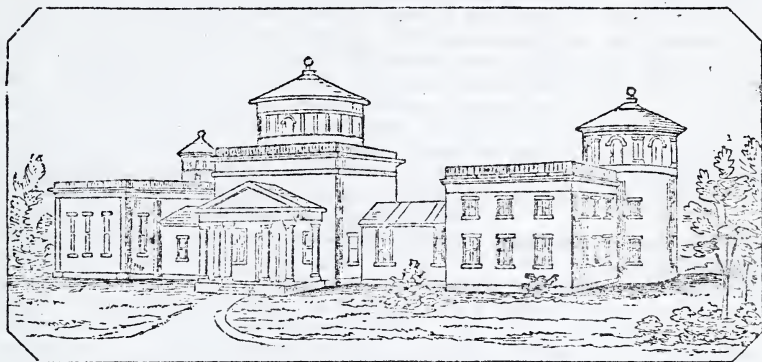
Canton is 25 miles N. from Jackson, on the line of the railroad, and has about 2,000 inhabitants.

Yazoo City is a large shipping point for cotton on the Yazoo River,

50 miles N. N. W. from Jackson. It is in a rich cotton district, and has about 2,500 inhabitants.

Holly Springs, the capital of Marshall county, is on the line of the Mississippi Central railroad, 210 miles north of Jackson, and has several educational institutions of fine repute, and about 4,000 inhabitants.

The *Lauderdale Springs*, sulphur and chalybeate, are in Lauderdale county, in the extreme northwestern corner of the state. *Cooper's Well*, 12 miles west of Jackson, is noted for its mineral qualities.



Outline view of the Observatory of the University of Mississippi.

THE LYMAN COLONY IN MISSISSIPPI.

Phineas Lyman, a major general in the French Canadian war, was one of the first of the Anglo Saxon race who attempted a settlement in the present limits of Mississippi. He was a native of Durham, Conn., a graduate of Yale College, a distinguished lawyer, and became commander of the Connecticut forces in 1755. He visited England as the agent for an association, called the "Military Adventurers," whose design was the colonization of a tract of country upon the Mississippi. After sustaining a series of mortifications and delays from those in power, for more than ten years, the grant upon the Mississippi was made, and he returned home in 1773.

In Dec., 1773, Gen. Lyman sailed from New England, in two vessels, for New Orleans, accompanied by the following emigrants: Daniel and Roswell Magruet and Capt. Ladley, of Hartford; Thomas and James Lyman, of Durham; Hugh White, Capt. Ellsworth, Ira Whitmore, and — Sage, of Middletown; Thaddeus and Phineas Lyman, James Harman and family, — Moses, Isaac Sheldon, Roger Harmon, — Hanks, Elnathan Smith, and eight slaves, from Suffield; Thomas Comstock, — Weed, of New Hartford; Capt. Silas Crane, Robert Patrick, Ashbel Bowen, John Newcomb, and James Dean, of Lebanon; Abram Knapp, and Capt. Matthew Phelps, of Norfolk; Giles and Nathaniel Hull, James Stoddard, and Thaddeus Bradley, of Salisbury; Maj. Easley, of Weathersfield; John Fisk, and Elisha Hale, Wallingford, Timothy and David Hotchkiss, Waterbury; John Hyde, William and Jonathan Lyon, and William Davis, of Stratford or Derby; — Alcott of Windsor. All these were from Connecticut. The following were from Massachusetts: Moses Drake, Ruggles Winchel, and Benjamin Barber, of Westfield; Seth Miller, Elisha and Joseph Flowers, William Hurlbut, and Elisha Leonard, with a number of slaves, of Springfield.

Gen. Lyman and his company arrived at New Orleans in 1774, and after a laborious passage up the Mississippi, reached the Big Black River, in the "Natchez Country," as it was called. Here he settled his grant, but was too old to cultivate it. In a short time he and his son died. Capt. Phelps returned to Connecticut,

and by his representations of the fertility of the new country, induced many of the citizens to return with him. After some delay, he sailed from Middletown in 1776. Among the emigrants were Madame Lyman, the widow of the late general, with three sons and two daughters, Maj. Timothy, Sereno, and Jonathan Dwight, of Northampton; Benjamin Day and family, Harry Dwight and three slaves, Joseph Leonard and Joshua Flowers, with their families, from Springfield; Rev. Mr. Smith and his family, from Granville, Mass.; Mrs. Elnathan Smith and children, John Felt, with his family, Capt. Phelps and family, from Suffield, and many others.

After a voyage of three months, they reached New Orleans on the 1st of August. Here, having obtained boats, they proceeded up the Mississippi. Capt. Phelps and all his children becoming prostrated by disease, his boat was tied to the willows, while the others continued the voyage. The boat containing the Lymans and the Rev. Mr. Smith reached Natchez. Mr. Smith and Maj. Dwight died in a short time. Those of the party who were left arrived at the Big Black and the improvements made by Gen. Lyman. Here Madame Lyman soon died, and was buried by the side of her husband. Capt. Phelps remained in his boat, which was anchored fifteen miles above Point Coupee, where his son and daughter died and he was compelled to bury them with his own hands: his wife soon after died, and he was left alone with two little children. These were subsequently drowned as he came in sight of the mouth of the Big Black River.

The remaining members of the Lyman family continued in the country until it was invaded by the Spaniards in 1781-82. With a number of their friends, they planted themselves in the neighborhood of Natchez. Being British subjects, and having everything to fear from the Spaniards, they determined to flee through the wilderness to Savannah, the nearest British post. The mother country and her colonies being at war, rendered a direct course to Savannah too perilous to be hazarded. To avoid danger they were compelled to take a very circuitous route, wandering, according to their reckoning, nearly fourteen hundred miles. Their journeyings occupied one hundred and forty-nine days.

The caravan was numerous, including men, women and children, with some at the breast. They were mounted on horseback, but the ruggedness of the ground obliged such as were able to walk, to make a great part of their way on foot. They were in constant apprehensions from hostile Indians. Often they suffered from extreme thirst and hunger. The first Indian town they ventured to approach was on the "Hickory ground"—the site of Wetumpka, Ala. Supposing the company were whigs, and enemies to King George, their "Great Father," the Creeks appear to have determined to put them to death. But, by the cunning and address of Paro, the black servant of McGillivray, the Creek chief, who understood the English language, they escaped. The Indians told Paro that, if they were Englishmen, "they could make the paper talk," *i. e.* they must have kept a journal. Paro took the hint, and as they had kept none, he told them any piece of paper that had writing upon it would serve the purpose. An old letter was produced, from which one of the company pretended to read the adventures of the company since they left Natchez. This was interpreted to the Indians by Paro, sentence by sentence. As the recital went on, their countenances began to relax, and before the reading was finished, their ferocity was succeeded by friendship, and all the wants of the wanderers kindly supplied.

THE BANDIT MASON.

"Among the incidents in the early history of the Mississippi Territory was the violent death of the notorious robber Mason. This fearless bandit had become the terror of the routes from New Orleans and Natchez through the Indian nations. After the organization of the territorial government, and the opening of roads through the wilderness to Tennessee, the return of traders, supercargoes, and boatmen to the northern settlements, with the proceeds of their voyage, was on foot and on horseback, in parties for mutual protection, through the Indian nations; and often rich treasures of specie were packed on mules and horses over

these long and toilsome journeys. Nor was it a matter of surprise, in a dreary wilderness, that bandits should infest such a route. It was in the year 1802, when all travel and intercourse from New Orleans and the Mississippi Territory was necessarily by way of this solitary trace, or by the slow-ascending barge and keel, that Mason made his appearance in the Mississippi Territory.

Long accustomed to robbery and murder upon the Lower Ohio, during the Spanish dominion on the Mississippi, and pressed by the rapid approach of the American population, he deserted the 'Cave in the Rock,' on the Ohio, and began to infest the great Natchez Trace, where the rich proceeds of the river trade were the tempting prize, and where he soon became the terror of every peaceful traveler through the wilderness. Associated with him were his two sons and a few other desperate miscreants; and the name of Mason and his band was known and dreaded from the morasses of the southern frontier to the silent shades of the Tennessee River. The outrages of Mason became more frequent and sanguinary. One day found him marauding on the banks of the Pearl, against the life and fortune of the trader; and before pursuit was organized, the hunter, attracted by the descending sweep of the solitary vulture, learned the story of another robbery and murder on the remote shores of the Mississippi. Their depredations became at last so frequent and daring, that the people of the territory were driven to adopt measures for their apprehension. But such was the knowledge of the wilderness possessed by the wily bandit, and such his untiring vigilance and activity, that for a time he baffled every attempt for his capture.

Treachery at last, however, effected what stratagem, enterprise and courage had in vain attempted. A citizen of great respectability, passing with his sons through the wilderness, was plundered by the bandits. Their lives were, however, spared, and they returned to the settlement. Public feeling was now excited, and the governor of the territory found it necessary to act. Governor Claiborne accordingly offered a liberal reward for the robber Mason, dead or alive! The proclamation was widely distributed, and a copy of it reached Mason himself, who indulged in much merriment on the occasion. Two of his band, however, tempted by the large reward, concerted a plan by which they might obtain it. An opportunity soon occurred; and while Mason, in company with the two conspirators, was counting out some ill-gotten plunder, a tomahawk was buried in his brain. His head was severed from his body and borne in triumph to Washington, then the seat of the territorial government.

The head of Mason was recognized by many, and identified by all who read the proclamation, as the head entirely corresponded with the description given of certain scars and peculiar marks. Some delay, however, occurred in paying over the reward, owing to the slender state of the treasury. Meantime, a great assemblage from all the adjacent country had taken place, to view the grim and ghastly head of the robber chief. They were not less inspired with curiosity to see and converse with the individual whose prowess had delivered the country of so great a scourge. Among those spectators were the two young men, who, unfortunately for these traitors, recognized them as companions of Mason in the robbery of their father.

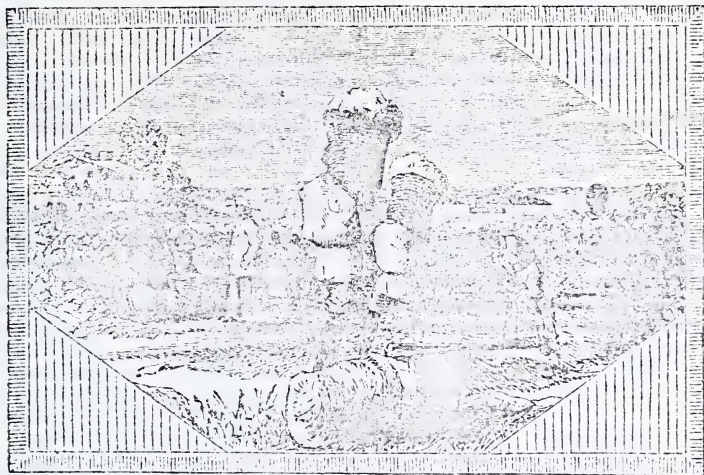
It is unnecessary to say that treachery met its just reward, and that justice was also satisfied. The reward was not only withheld, but the robbers were imprisoned, and, on the full evidence of their guilt, condemned and executed at Greenville, Jefferson county.

The band of Mason, being thus deprived of their leader and two of his most efficient men, dispersed and fled the country. Thus terminated the terrors which had infested the route through the Indian nations, known to travelers as the 'Natchez and Nashville Trace.'

COTTON.

Cotton, only within the memory of man, has assumed much importance in the agriculture and commerce of the world. With our fathers, cotton cloth was almost entirely unknown, linen being universally worn. This change has been

owing to the invention of the cotton gin by Whitney* in 1793. Prior to this time it was in vain to think of raising cotton for the market, for separating the seed from a single pound of cotton was a day's work for a single hand. At this period the whole interior of the southern states was languishing, and the people emigrated for want of some object to engage their attention and employ their industry, when the invention of this machine at once opened new views to them which set the whole country in motion.



Harvesting Cotton.

In 1784, an American vessel arrived at Liverpool, having on board, for part of her cargo, *eight bags* of cotton, which were seized by the officers of customs under the conviction that they could not be the growth of America, although the plant is natural to the soil. Now cotton is our great article of export, amounting in value, in 1859, to \$161,000,000, and in total product to about \$250,000,000!! The demand is increasing in a greater ratio than we can supply; such

* "Eli Whitney, the great benefactor of the south, in the invention of the cotton gin, was born in Massachusetts, and was early distinguished for his mechanical genius. After graduating at Yale College, he visited Georgia in the prospect of securing a situation of private tutor. He was disappointed in the hope, and was received, almost in charity, under the benevolent roof of Mrs. Green, the widow of General Nathaniel Green, of the Revolution. A party of gentlemen, conversing incidentally on the subject, were lamenting that there was no means of separating the seed from the cotton; and remarked, that until ingenuity could devise some machine to effect the purpose, it was vain to think of raising cotton to export. "Gentlemen," said Mrs. Green, "apply to my young friend, Mr. Whitney, he can make anything." When the matter was proposed to Whitney, he replied that he had never seen cotton or cotton seed in his life. The subject was thus, however, suggested to his mind, and with tools most inadequate, and much of the materials made by himself, in the course of a few months, he perfected a machine which answered every desired purpose. Thus, by the force of intuitive genius, one man called into practical being the staple of an entire country, revolutionized its affairs, and added millions to its wealth. When the fact of such a discovery was known, the populace was so determined to possess the machine, that they broke open his house and seized it. Before Whitney was able to make his model and procure his patent, many machines were already in operation. This violent procedure robbed the inventor of much of the benefit of his discovery. It was emphatically stated by Whitney, in a subsequent application to congress for remuneration, "that his invention had been the source of opulence to thousands of the citizens of the United States, and that as a labor-saving machine, it would enable one man to perform the work of one thousand men."

are our advantages of soil and climate, that none can compete with us. Instead of measuring the value of this invention by hundreds of millions of dollars, thousands of millions could scarce compass it. But for it, it is probable that the cotton-growing states would have remained in a wilderness condition, and our country, as a whole, immeasurably behind her present state, in wealth, power, and population.

The earliest seat of the cotton manufacture known to us was Hindostan, where it continues to be carried on by hand labor. America and Europe are now pouring back upon Asia her original manufacture, and underselling her in her own markets. In the manufacture of no one article has the genius of invention been more called into exercise. It has not only built up our own Lowell and other thriving towns, but large cities in other lands, as Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, Paisley, etc. It is estimated to give employment to over a million of persons, and an amount of capital of millions upon millions of dollars.

"Cotton goods, to a great extent, may be seen freighting every vessel from Christian nations, that traverses the globe; and filling the warehouses and shelves of the merchants, over two thirds of the world. By the industry, skill, and enterprise employed in the manufacture of cotton, mankind are better clothed; their comfort better promoted; general industry more highly stimulated; commerce more widely extended; and civilization more rapidly advanced than in any preceding age. When the statistics on the subject are examined, it appears that nearly all the cotton consumed in the Christian world, is the product of the slave-labor of the United States." The London Economist says: "The lives of nearly two millions of our countrymen are dependent upon the cotton crops of America; their destiny may be said, without any kind of hyperbole, to hang upon a thread. Should any dire calamity befall the land of cotton, a thousand of our merchant ships would rot idly in dock; ten thousand mills must stop their busy looms; two hundred thousand mouths would starve, for lack of food."

There appears to be no limits to the varieties of cotton. The varieties familiar to our southern states, and known to commerce, are divided into "short" and "long staple." The short staple, or *upland cotton*, was originally procured from the West Indies, and is familiar to every household in the form of sheetings and shirtings. The long staple, or *Sea Island cotton*, is supposed to have originated in Persia. It is the finest cotton in the world, commanding four or five times the price of the other, and is used only for the finest fabrics. Combined with silk it often deceives the most practiced eye to discover the mixture.

An immense area of the Union is adapted to the cultivation of cotton, including all the slave states excepting the northern tier. What are particularly denominated the cotton states, are South Carolina, Georgia, and those on the Gulf of Mexico. These include great varieties of scenery, and often the cotton plantations are rendered picturesque by the combinations of hill and dale. Preparations for planting the cotton begin in January, by collecting the old stalks of the previous season in piles, and destroying them by fire. The planting takes place about the last of March, two or three bushels of seed being used to the acre. In about a week the young plants are seen making their way above ground in lines of solid masses. "The field hand, however, will single one delicate shoot from the surrounding multitude, and with his rude hoe he will trim away the remainder with all the boldness of touch of a master; leaving the incipient stalk unharmed and alone in its glory; and at nightfall you can look along the extending rows, and find the plants correct in line, and of the required distance of separation from each other. Through the month of July the crop is worked over the last time, with the plow and the hoe, and makes rapid advances to perfection.

The "cotton bloom," under the matured sun of July, begins to make its appearance. The announcement of the "first blossom" of the neighborhood is a matter of general interest. It should, perhaps, be here remarked, that the color of cotton in its perfection is precisely that of the blossom—a beautiful light, but warm cream color. In buying cotton cloth, the "bleached" and "unbleached" are perceptibly different qualities to the most casual observer; but the dark hues and harsh look of the "unbleached domestic" comes from the handling of the artisan and the soot of machinery. If cotton, pure as it looks in the field, could be wrought into fabrics, they would have a brilliancy and beauty never yet accorded to any other material in its natural or artificial state.

The 'cotton-picking season' is generally brought to a close by the middle of December. The crop ready for shipment, the negroes are permitted to relax from their labors, and are in fine spirits, because 'the work of the year is finished.' The Christmas holidays are strictly kept, and is the great gala season of the negro.

LOUISIANA.

THE territory of Louisiana was first traversed by the Spaniards under *De Soto*, who died at the mouth of Red River, in May, 1542. This celebrated



ARMS OF LOUISIANA.

Motto—Union and Confidence.

adventurer, finding that the hour of death was come, appointed a successor, and with his dying breath, exhorted his desponding followers to "*union and confidence*," words later emblazoned on the arms of Louisiana. *De Soto*, it is said, expended 100,000 ducats in this expedition, and thus like the fabled *pelican* of old, gave his own blood for the nourishment of his brood of followers.

In 1682, *La Salle*, a French naval officer, discovered the three passages by which the Mississippi discharges its waters into the Gulf. *La Salle*, having ascended the river to a dry spot, above inundation, erected a column with the arms of France affixed, and took possession of the country,

"in the name of the Most High, mighty, invincible, and victorious Prince, Louis the Great, by the grace of God, King of France and Navarre, fourteenth of that name." After the *Te Deum* was chanted, a salute of fire-arms, and cries of *vive le roi*, *La Salle* declared that his majesty, as eldest son of the church, would annex no country to his crown, without making it his chief care to establish the Christian religion therein: its symbol must now be planted. Accordingly a cross was erected, before which religious services were performed. The country was named *Louisiana*, in honor of the French king.

La Salle attempted a settlement, but it failed. In 1699, a more successful attempt was made by *Iberville* and others. He entered the mouth of the Mississippi, and after making considerable explorations, he returned to the Bay of Biloxi, where he erected a fort, which he left in charge of his brothers, *Sauvolle* and *Bienville*, and then returned to France. In 1712, the King of France granted a charter to *M. Crozat*, which covered the whole province, with the exclusive privilege of trade, etc., for twenty years. This grant was

surrendered, after five years, with bitter complaints that from the imbecility of the colony, the strength of the Indians, the presence of the British, and the sterility of the soil, it had proved of no value to him, but rather a ruinous expense.

About the year 1717, *John Law*, a Scotchman, but settled in Paris as a financier, obtained a charter for a bank. With this was connected a great commercial company, to whom was granted the extensive territory of Louisiana, the mines of which, near the Mississippi, would, it was represented, reimburse any investment. The Royal Bank stock went up to *six hundred* times its par value, and dividends were rendered at 200 per cent. This banking and stock jobbing bubble soon burst, involving vast numbers of persons in every rank of life in ruin, and the "*Mississippi Scheme*" was a by-word for a long period. Despairing of finding gold, and having but poor success in colonizing their lands, this "Western Company" gave up their charter in 1732, which the king accepted, and declared the commerce of Louisiana free.

In 1760, war broke out between Great Britain and France. Canada fell into the hands of the English, and rather than submit to their government, many of the inhabitants sought a home in southern climes, fixing themselves on the Acadian coast of Louisiana, or, taking their course westward of the river, formed the settlements of Attakapas, Opelousas, and Avoyelles. In 1762, France ceded the territory of Louisiana west of the Mississippi, with New Orleans, to Spain, and soon afterward abandoned her possessions eastward to Great Britain. When the news of the transfer of Louisiana fell upon the French inhabitants, they were filled with mourning. O'Reilly, with a Spanish military force, arrived and landed in New Orleans, and took formal possession of the country in the name of his king. This commander soon proved himself a tyrant. Some of the first citizens were arrested, thrown into prison, declared guilty of treason, and tried under the statute of Alphonso, making it death to incite insurrection against the king. Sentence and execution followed. "Posterity," says Martin, the historian, "will doom this act to public execration."

The laws of Spain were gradually extended over Louisiana. During the American Revolution, Galvez, governor of Louisiana, captured the British garrison at Baton Rouge. The treaties between Great Britain, France and Spain and the United States, concluded in 1783, opened the navigation of the Mississippi, and ceded the Floridas to Spain. These treaties, however, were followed by embarrassing disputes, particularly respecting the navigation of that part of the Mississippi which passed through their territories. Any attempt to navigate the river, to introduce merchandise into New Orleans, was resisted by the authorities, and the property seized. About the year 1787, Gen. Wilkinson conceived the design of making a settlement of American families in Louisiana, for which he expected to receive commercial favors from the Spaniards.

In 1800, Spain reconveyed the province of Louisiana to France. Bonaparte, in 1803, sold the territory to the United States, for fifteen millions of dollars. On the 20th of December, 1803, "the American flag waved over the city of New Orleans—the same day having witnessed the descent of the Spanish ensign, and the elevation of the tri-color, the latter only having been raised to be replaced by the stars and stripes. Gov. Claiborne, on taking the chair of authority, organized a judiciary. The act of Congress, in 1804, established a territorial government. The conflicting

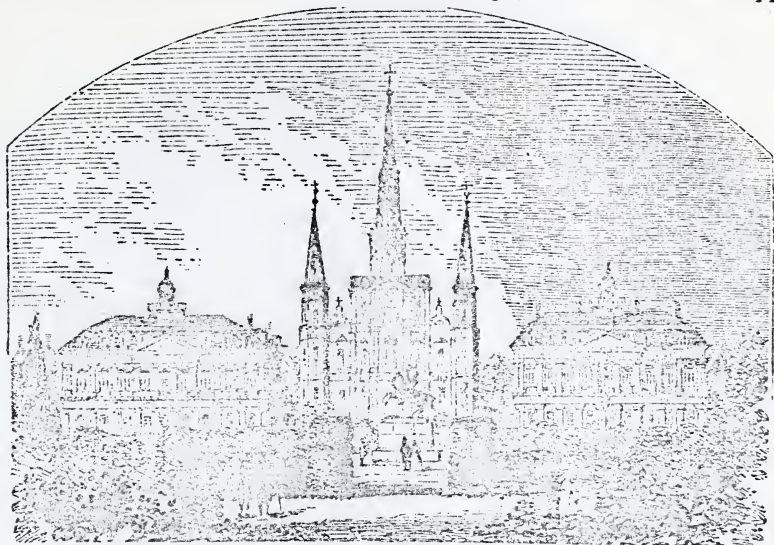
claims of the United States and Spain, to the strip of territory lying east of the Mississippi River, were brought to something like a crisis, in 1810, by the seizure of the Spanish post at Baton Rouge. In 1812, Louisiana was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state. Upon the declaration of war with Great Britain, Gen. Wilkinson took possession of the country west of the Perdido, then in the occupation of Spain. The memorable battle of New Orleans was fought on the 8th of January, 1815. The British troops, about 8,000 strong, were entirely defeated by a body of about 6,000 American militia, with a loss of about 2,600 men, killed, wounded, and prisoners; the American loss was only six killed and seven wounded, a disparity rarely if ever before known. Since this period, Louisiana has steadily advanced in wealth and population.

Louisiana extends from 29° to 33° N. latitude, and from 88° 40' to 94° 25' W. longitude; bounded N. by Arkansas and Mississippi, E. by Mississippi, W. by Texas, and S. by the Gulf of Mexico. Its length is 250 miles, its breadth on the Gulf of Mexico 300 miles, and at its northern boundary is 180, having an area computed at 46,431 square miles. The whole surface of the state consists mostly of low grounds, with some hilly ranges in the western part. The southern portion of the state, occupying about one fourth part of its territory is seldom elevated more than ten feet above the sea, and is annually inundated by the spring floods. This section is an alluvial deposit from the waters of the Mississippi and its branches. The territory between the Atchafalaya on the west, and the Iberville, etc., on the east, is called the *Delta* of the Mississippi, from its resemblance to the Greek letter of that name.

The immense alluvial soil of Mississippi may be arranged into four classes—the first, about two thirds of the whole, has a heavy growth of timber, with an almost impenetrable undergrowth of canes, etc., and a soil of the richest fertility. The second class consists of cypress swamps; these are basins or depressions of the surface from which there is no outlet, and the waters which they receive from the annual floods remain until they are carried off by evaporation; the third class consists of the sea marsh, a belt of land partially covered by the common tides, and generally without timber; the fourth class consists of small bodies of prairie land.

The richest tract in the state is a narrow belt, called "*the coast*," lying along the Mississippi, on both sides, extending from 150 miles above to 140 below New Orleans, and one to two miles wide. This belt was formed from the annual deposits of the river, and is a little above the ordinary level of the floods. To prevent the river from inundating the valuable tracts in the rear, an artificial embankment has been built, six or eight feet high, called the *Levee*, which is sufficiently broad for a highway. The whole of this tract is under cultivation, and large quantities of sugar are annually produced. Below the mouth of Red River, the Mississippi separates into several branches or outlets, which, diverging from each other, slowly wend their way into the Gulf of Mexico, and divide the southwestern portion of the state into islands. The climate in the vicinity of New Orleans is similar to that of Charleston, S. C., although two degrees further south. The great agricultural productions of the state are sugar, indian corn, rice and cotton. Louisiana is divided into two districts, the eastern and western; the eastern contains 21, the western 26 parishes. Improved lands, 1,590,025 acres; unimproved, 3,939,018. Population, in 1810, 76,556; in 1820, 153,407; in 1850, 511,974; in 1860, 666,431, of whom 312,186 were slaves.

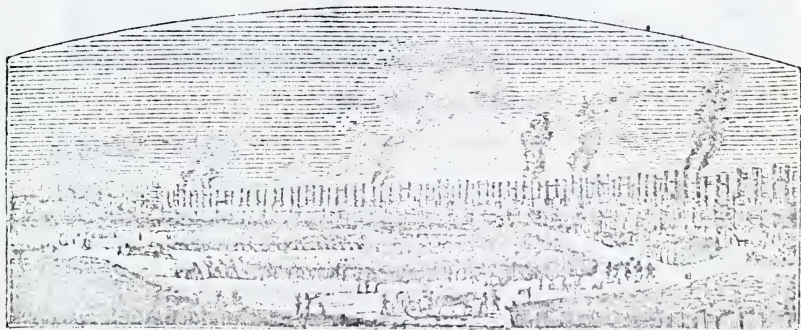
NEW ORLEANS, the great commercial emporium of the south and west, and the greatest cotton mart on the globe, is situated on the E. or left bank of the Mississippi, 105 miles above its mouth, 1,438 S.W. from Washington, 1,663 from N. York, 2,025 miles from Pittsburgh, *via* Ohio and Mississippi



South-Eastern view of Jackson Square, New Orleans.

The Cathedral, with its spires, appears in the central part, the Statue of Gen. Jackson within the square in front. The Court buildings on either side.

Rivers, and 2,000 from St. Anthony's Falls, in Lat. $29^{\circ} 57' 30''$ N., Lon. 90° W. from Greenwich. The city is built around the river, which here forms a curve somewhat in the form of a crescent, from which circumstance it is



View on the Levee at New Orleans.

often called the '*Crescent City*.' The Mississippi, opposite New Orleans, is half a mile wide, and 100 to 160 feet deep, and continues this depth to near the Gulf, where there are bars having only 13 to 16 feet of water. The location is on a piece of land which inclines gently from the river to the marshy grounds in the rear. At high water it is from three to nine feet below the

water surface. To protect the country against inundations, an embankment, or *levee*, fifteen feet wide and six feet high, has been raised, extending 120 miles above, and 43 below the city to Fort Plaquemine.



View in New Orleans.

The engraving is a representation in St. Charles street, showing the widely known St. Charles Hotel, with the adjacent buildings.

The New Orleans levee is one continuous landing-place, or quay, four miles in extent, and of an average width of 100 feet. It is 15 feet above low water mark, and six feet above the level of the city, to which it is graduated by an easy descent. During the business season, from November to July, the river in front of the levee is crowded with vessels, of all sizes and from all quarters of the world, with hundreds of large and splendid steam-boats, barges, flat-boats, etc. The levee presents a most busy and animated prospect. Here are seen piles of cotton bales, vast numbers of barrels of pork, flour, and liquors of various kinds, bales of foreign and domestic manufactures, hogsheds of sugar, crates of ware, etc., draymen with their carts, buyers, sellers, laborers, etc. Valuable products from the head waters of the Missouri, 3,000 miles distant, center here. The Illinois, the Ohio, the Arkansas and Red Rivers, with the Mississippi, are all tributaries to this commercial depot. Upward of two hundred millions of dollars worth of

merchandise are annually brought to this market. Upward of 2,000 vessels, with a tonnage of more than 1,000,000, enter and clear from this port annually.

The change in the course of the river at New Orleans, causes vast alluvial deposits, particularly at that point where the commerce of the city chiefly centers. Here it has been found necessary to erect quays, extending from 50 to 100 feet in the river. In consequence of the new formations, the levee has been widened, and an additional row of warehouses erected between the city and the river. The city is built along the river over seven miles, and extends toward Lake Ponchartrain, nearly four miles from the river. The houses are mostly of brick, and many of the residences in the suburbs are ornamented with orange trees and gardens. The city was originally laid out by the French, in an oblong rectangular shape, 1,320 yards in length, and 700 yards in breadth. In 1836, New Orleans was divided into three municipalities, but in 1852, this division was abrogated, and the faubourgs, with the village of La Fayette, are now incorporated under one city government. Algiers, which may be regarded as one of the suburbs, is a flourishing village on the opposite side of the river, and has several shipyards and extensive manufacturing establishments. The inhabitants of New Orleans are nearly equally composed of Americans, Creoles, and Spaniards. Population, in 1850, 116,375; in 1860, 170,766.

Jackson Square, with its beautiful statuary, trees, shrubbery, etc., in front of the Cathedral, is one of the most attractive places in the city. Formerly it was known as *Place d'Arms*, and in early days was used for military purposes. In 1850 it was changed to its present name, since which time it has been tastefully laid out in walks, and ornamented with the rarest plants and flowers of the south. In the center of the square is a fine statue of Jackson, the hero of New Orleans, on horseback. In either corner of the square is a statue representing the seasons. The Catholic Cathedral, fronting the square, was erected in 1792. The style of its architecture is duplex—the first story front is of the Doric order, and the second, the Tuscan. The belfry was erected in 1850. The founder, Don Andre, built and dedicated this imposing structure to the church, on condition that masses be offered every Saturday evening at sunset for the repose of his soul.

Lafayette Square, adorned with shade trees, is now used as a military parade ground, and has several fine public edifices around it—the *Old Fellows' Hall* fronts the west side of the square. It is a noble building, erected at a cost of \$200,000. The *City Hall*, on the opposite side of the square, is a superb edifice of the Grecian Ionic order, after the Erechtheum at Athens: it is built of white marble, the basement being of granite. The finest portion of the building is the portico, with its massive marble columns. The pediment contains a groupe in marble, representing Justice supported by Liberty and Commerce. It was commenced in 1847, and completed in 1850, at an expense of about \$300,000. Since the consolidation of the city, it has been known as the City Hall. The *First Presbyterian Church*, on the south side of the square, is an architectural ornament to the city of the first order. It is of Gothic style, and the largest building of the kind in the city, being nearly 100 feet in breadth and 194 in depth, having a steeple 210 feet high. It occupies the site of the old church, which was destroyed by fire, Oct. 30, 1854. The following inscription is within the vestibule:

In memory of REV. SYLVESTER LARNED, First Pastor of the Presbyterian Church in this City, who died of the yellow fever, Aug. 31, 1820; aged 24 years. His last sermon was

preached on the 27th of Aug., from Phil. I, 21. For to me to live is Christ, and to die is gain.

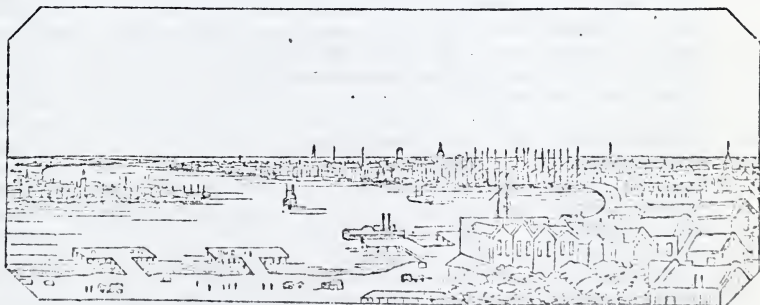
There are about 50 churches in New Orleans, about one third of which are Catholic. The *Charity Hospital* is a large building, three stories high and 290 feet in length. It was instituted in 1832, and the citizen and stranger



Northern View of Lafayette Square, New Orleans.

The first Presbyterian Church is seen in the central part, on the south side of the Square. Part of the Odd Fellows' Hall and Catholic Church on the left, and the front of the City Hall on the extreme right.

alike find admission and receive the benefits of this institution during sickness. Its average yearly admissions have been latterly about 11,000, and its discharges about 9,000. Its disbursements are about \$100,000. The *University of Louisiana* was founded in 1849. The medical department has 8



Situation of New Orleans.

The outline shows the general appearance of New Orleans, as seen from the south, on the east bank of the Mississippi. The localities of Algiers, MacDonough, etc., appear on the left; part of the levee in front, professors, the academic 4, and the law 4. The U. S. Marine Hospital is at MacDonough, on the opposite side of the river. The hotels and theaters of New Orleans, are among the most splendid buildings in the city. St. Charles

Theater is 132 feet long and 170 feet deep, and cost about \$350,000; the French theater is a large and expensive building; the American theater cost about \$130,000. These three theaters will, in the aggregate, accommodate about 4,500 persons, and are nightly filled, often to suffocation.

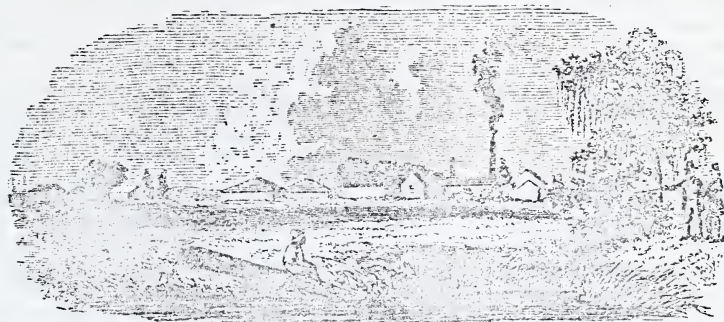
The New Orleans Custom House is stated to be "the largest structure of the-kind under one roof in the world." The corner stone was laid by Henry Clay, in 1849. The building covers a whole square, an area of two acres. The whole cost, when completed, it is supposed will amount to nearly four millions of dollars.

The statue of Henry Clay is one of the objects of interest in New Orleans. It is in bronze, after the design of Joel T. Hart. It is about twelve feet in high, and is mounted on a lofty pedestal. Mr. Clay is represented in the act of addressing the senate, the left hand resting on the pedestal, the right gracefully extended. The corner stone was laid on the 12th of April, 1856, and on the 12th of April, 1860, it was inaugurated in the presence of one of the largest concourses of people ever assembled in the city. It stands in the heart of the metropolis, overlooking the Mississippi. New Orleans was a place of favorite resort to Mr. Clay, and his memory is endeared to her citizens by many valued recollections of his social life among them.

The history of New Orleans, in its earlier epochs, embraces that of the whole French settlements in lower Louisiana. It received its name from the Duke of Orleans, Regent of France.

"In many respects New Orleans is regarded as the most remarkable and attractive city of the United States, especially by those foreigners who are partial to the life of Southern Europe. Its almost tropical climate, its semi-French tone, its luxuries and pleasures, and its being, so to speak, the headquarters of the southwestern states, whose inhabitants are famed for their frank, courteous, and hospitable manners, all combine to render New Orleans to the one who perfectly appreciates it a place of most delightful memories and associations. Previous to the beginning of the present century, the history of New Orleans was intimately connected with that of France and Spain. It was settled by the French in 1717, and owed its existence to the famous, and until recently but imperfectly understood genius, John Law. The settlement of the country did not succeed, however, under the Mississippi scheme, though immense sums were expended upon it, and many colonists sent there. All possible protection and privilege failed to produce remunerative returns, principally because gold and silver were more sought for than crops. In 1727, New Orleans received a great number of Jesuit priests and Ursuline nuns, who remained there until 1764. It was in 1769 that the first cases of yellow fever occurred—introduced, it is said, by a slaver. Its commerce with the United States began in 1777, and during the following year it was nearly destroyed by a vast conflagration. The population of New Orleans in 1785 amounted to four thousand seven hundred; in 1853 it was one hundred and forty-five thousand four hundred and forty-nine, of whom twenty-nine thousand one hundred and seventy-four were either slaves or 'f.p.e.,' 'free people of color.' In 1762, by secret treaty, Louisiana was conveyed to Spain. Several years elapsed before the occupation took place. The new Spanish government was odious to the French settlers, and so aggravating to their American neighbors that our general government had at one time to use strenuous exertions to prevent a regular war between the western people and the Spaniards. New Orleans was reconveyed to the French in 1800, and included in our purchase of Louisiana. Napoleon saw that the loss of the country was inevitable, and wisely sold it to the United States. Never was a monarch so willing to sell out, or a government so anxious to buy as ours, the only difficulty was the price. It was finally transferred for the valuable consideration of eighty millions of livres, deducting twenty millions for spoils of our merchant marine. In 1804 New Orleans was incorporated as a city; in 1805 it became a port of entry. From the period of its passing under 'American' govern-

ment, its progress was wonderfully rapid, its population more than doubling within seven years. It was on January 8, 1815, that the most interesting event in its history occurred. It was on that day that General Pakenham approached the city through Lakes Borgne and Ponchartrain, and was defeated by General Jackson."



Battle Field of Plaine Chalmette, or New Orleans.

The memorable *battle of New Orleans* was fought about four miles below the city, at a spot washed by the Mississippi, and surrounded by cypress swamps and cane-brakes. The following account is from Perkins' History of the War:

"On his arrival in the city, General Jackson, in conjunction with Judge Hall, and many influential persons of the city, on the 16th of December, issued an order declaring the city and environs of New Orleans to be under strict martial law. Every individual entering the city was required to report himself to the adjutant-general, and no person by land or water was suffered to leave the city without a passport. The street lamps were ordered to be extinguished at nine o'clock; after which any persons found in the streets, or from their homes without permission in writing, and not having the countersign, were ordered to be apprehended as spies. This measure at once converted the whole city into a camp, and subjected the persons and property of the citizens to the will of the commanding general. Writs of habeas corpus, and all other civil process by means of which the lives and properties of the people are protected, were for the time suspended. Such was the alarm and confusion of the moment, that few inquiries were made whence the commanding general of a military station derived such powers, to be exercised over the inhabitants of the adjacent country, in nowise connected with his camp. Although the brilliant success which afterward attended the operations of General Jackson seemed to justify the measure, yet the people saw in it a precedent, which though it might have saved New Orleans, might at some future period extinguish their liberties. A most rigid police was now instituted. Spies and traitors, with which, the governor complained, the city abounded, and who had been industriously employed in seducing the French and Spanish inhabitants from their allegiance, now fled; and the remaining citizens cordially co-operated with the general in the means of defense. Fort St. Philips, which guarded the passage of the river at the Detour la Piquemine, was strengthened and placed under the command of Major Overton, an able and skillful engineer. A site was selected for works of defense, four miles below the city, where its destinies were ultimately to be determined. The right rested on the river, and the left was flanked by an impenetrable cypress swamp, which extended eastward to Lake Ponchartrain, and westward to within a mile of the river. Between the swamp and the river was a large ditch or artificial bayou which had been made for agricultural objects, but which now served an important military purpose. On the northern bank of this ditch, the entrenchments were thrown up.

Each flank was secured by an advance bastion, and the latter protected by batteries in the rear. These works were well mounted with artillery. Opposite this position, on the west bank of the river, on a rising ground, General Morgan, with the city and drafted militia, was stationed; and Commodore Patterson, with the crews of the *Caroline* and *Louisiana*, and the guns of the latter, formed another, near General Morgan's; both of which entirely enfiladed the approach of an enemy against the principal works. A detachment was stationed above the town to guard the pass of the Bayou St. John, if an attempt should be made from that quarter. These arrangements, promptly and judiciously made, gave entire confidence to the citizens, and inspired them with zeal to second the general's exertions. Reinforcements were daily arriving, and as they arrived were immediately conducted to their respective stations.

Landing of the British.—In the meantime the British were actively employed in making preparations for the attack; believing the pass from Lake Borgne to Lake Pontchartrain to be defended according to General Wilkinson's plan, by the fortress of Petit Coquille, they determined to land from Lake Borgne by the Bayou Bienvenue. For this purpose they concentrated their forces on Ship Island, eighty miles distant from the contemplated place of landing. The depth of water in Lake Borgne was such that this distance could be traversed only by boats and small craft, and must necessarily be passed several times in order to bring up the whole armament. The first object of the British general, was to clear the lake of the American gun-boats; and for this purpose, forty British launches were sent in pursuit of them, and, after a desperate resistance, captured and destroyed the whole American flotilla, stationed on Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain, for the defense of New Orleans, consisting of five gun-boats and a small sloop and schooner. By this success, they obtained the undisturbed possession of the lake; and on the 22d of December, proceeded from their rendezvous on Ship Island, with all their boats and small craft capable of navigating the lake, to the Bayou of Bienvenue; and having surprised and captured the videttes at the mouth of the bayou, the first division accomplished their landing unobserved. Major General Villiere, of the New Orleans militia, living on the bayou, to whom the important service of making the first attack, and giving notice of the enemy's approach was intrusted, found them on his plantation, nine miles below the city, without any previous knowledge of their approach.

Skirmishes on the 23d.—Notice was immediately given to General Jackson, who came out and attacked them on the evening of the 23d. In this affair the British sustained a loss, in killed, wounded and missing, of five hundred. The British entrenched themselves at the Bienvenue plantation, four miles from the American camp, making the plantation house, in the rear of their works, their head-quarters. General Jackson established his head-quarters at McCarty's plantation, on the bank of the river, and in full view of the British encampment. Two armed schooners, the *Caroline* and *Louisiana*, constituting all the American naval force on the river, dropped down from the city, anchored opposite the British encampment, and opened a brisk fire upon their lines with considerable effect. On the 27th, the *Caroline*, Captain Henly, got becalmed within reach of the British batteries, and was set fire to and destroyed by their hot shot: the other succeeded in getting out of their reach. On the 28th, the British advanced within half a mile of the American lines, and opened a fire of shells and rockets; but were driven back by the artillery with considerable loss. On the night of the 31st of December, the enemy again advanced to within six hundred yards of General Jackson's position, and erected three batteries, mounting fifteen guns, and at eight o'clock in the morning opened a heavy fire. In the course of the day, under cover of these batteries, three unsuccessful attempts were made to storm the American works. By four in the afternoon, all their batteries were silenced, and in the following night they returned to their former position. On the 4th of January, General Adair arrived with four thousand Kentucky militia, principally without arms. The muskets and munitions of war destined for the supply of this corps, were provided at Pittsburgh, and did not leave that place until the 25th of December; passed Louisville the 6th of January, and arrived at New Orleans, several days after the battle of

the 8th. On the 6th, the last reinforcement of three thousand men arrived from England, under Major General Lambert. Before the final assault on the American lines, the British general deemed it necessary to dislodge General Morgan and Commodore Patterson from their positions on the right bank. These posts so effectually enfiladed the approach to General Jackson's works, that the army advancing to the assault must be exposed to the most imminent hazard. To accomplish this object, boats were to be transported across the island from Lake Borgne to the Mississippi; for this purpose the British had been laboriously employed in deepening and widening the canal or bayou Bienvenue, on which they first disembarked. On the 7th, they succeeded in opening the embankment on the river, and completing a communication from the lake to the Mississippi. In pushing the boats through, it was found at some places the canal was not of sufficient width, and at others the banks fell in and choked the passage, which necessarily occasioned great delay and increase of labor. At length, however, they succeeded in hauling through a sufficient number to transport five hundred troops to the right bank. At dawn of day on the 8th, was the period fixed for the final assault on the American lines. Colonel Thornton was detached with five hundred men, to cross the river and attack the batteries on that side, at the same time that the main assault was to be made, of which he was to be informed by a signal rocket. The American general had detached Colonel Davis, with three hundred Kentucky militia, badly armed, to reinforce General Morgan. These were immediately ordered to the water-edge, to oppose the enemy's landing. Unable in their situation to contend with a superior force of regular troops well armed, they soon broke and fled, and the Louisiana militia at General Morgan's battery followed their example. Commodore Patterson's marine battery, being now unprotected, his crews were obliged to yield to an overwhelming force, and the British succeeded in silencing both; but the opposition which Colonel Thornton met with prevented this operation from being completed until the contest was nearly ended on the opposite side of the river.

At day-light on the morning of the 8th, the main body of the British under their commander-in-chief, General Pakenham, were seen advancing from their encampment to storm the American lines. On the preceding evening they had erected a battery within eight hundred yards, which now opened a brisk fire to protect their advance. The British came on in two columns, the left along the levee on the bank of the river, directed against the American right, while their right advanced to the swamp, with a view to turn General Jackson's left. The country being a perfect level, and the view unobstructed, their march was observed from its commencement. They were suffered to approach in silence and unmolested, until within three hundred yards of the lines. This period of suspense and expectation was employed by General Jackson and his officers, in stationing every man at his post, and arranging everything for the decisive event. When the British columns had advanced within three hundred yards of the lines, the whole artillery at once opened upon them a most deadly fire. Forty pieces of cannon deeply charged with grape, canister, and musket balls, mowed them down by hundreds, at the same time the batteries on the west bank opened their fire, while the riflemen in perfect security behind their works, as the British advanced, took deliberate aim, and nearly every shot took effect. Through this destructive fire, the British left column, under the immediate orders of the commander-in-chief, rushed on with their fascines and scaling ladders to the advance bastion on the American right, and succeeded in mounting the parapet; here, after a close conflict with the bayonet, they succeeded in obtaining possession of the bastion, when the battery planted in the rear for its protection, opened its fire and drove the British from the ground. On the American left, the British attempted to pass the swamp, and gain the rear, but the works had been extended as far into the swamp as the ground would permit. Some who attempted it, sunk into the mire and disappeared; those behind, seeing the fate of their companions, seasonably retreated and gained the hard ground. The assault continued an hour and a quarter: during the whole time the British were exposed to the deliberate and destructive fire of the American artillery and musketry, which lay in perfect security behind their earthen breastworks, through which no balls could penetrate. At eight o'clock, the British columns drew off in confusion, and retreated behind their works. Flushed with success,

the militia were eager to pursue the British troops to their entrenchments, and drive them immediately from the island. A less prudent and accomplished general might have been induced to yield to the indiscreet ardor of his troops; but General Jackson understood too well the nature, both of his own and his enemy's force, to hazard such an attempt. Defeat must inevitably have attended an assault made by raw militia upon an entrenched camp of British regulars. The defense of New Orleans was the object; nothing was to be hazarded which would jeopardize the city. The British were suffered to retire behind their works without molestation. The result was such as might be expected from the different positions of the two armies. General Packenham, near the crest of the glacis, received a ball in his knee. Still continuing to lead on his men, another shot pierced his body, and he was carried off the field. Nearly at the same time, Major General Gibbs, the second in command, within a few yards of the lines, received a mortal wound, and was removed. The third in command, Major General Keane, at the head of his troops near the glacis, was severely wounded. The three commanding generals, on marshaling their troops at five o'clock in the morning, promised them a plentiful dinner in New Orleans, and gave them *booty and beauty* as the parole and countersign of the day. Before eight o'clock the three generals were carried off the field, two in the agonies of death, and the third entirely disabled; leaving upward of two thousand of their men, dead, dying, and wounded, on the field of battle. Colonel Raynor, who commanded the forlorn hope which stormed the American bastion on the right, as he was leading his men up, had the calf of his leg carried away by a cannon shot. Disabled as he was, he was the first to mount the parapet, and receive the American bayonet. Seven hundred were killed on the field, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred made prisoners, making a total on that day of twenty-six hundred. But six Americans were killed and seven wounded. Of General Morgan's detachment on the west bank, and in a sortie on the British lines, forty-nine were killed, and one hundred and seventy-eight wounded.

After the battle, General Lambert, who had arrived from England but two days before, and was now the only surviving general, requested a truce for the purpose of burying his dead. This was granted until four o'clock in the afternoon of the 9th. Lines were drawn one hundred rods distant from the American camp, within which the British were not permitted to approach. In the ditch, and in front of the works, within the prescribed lines, four hundred and eighty-two British dead were picked up by the American troops, and delivered to their companions over the lines for burial. The afternoon of the 8th and the whole of the 9th, was spent by the British army in burying their dead. The American sentinels guarding the lines during this interval, frequently repeated in the hearing of the British, while tumbling their companions by hundreds into pits, 'Six killed, seven wounded.'

Retreat of the British.—On the night of the 18th, they broke up their encampment, and commenced their retreat to the place of their first landing. To accomplish this with safety, it was necessary that the army should move in one body. With this view, immediately after the battle of the 8th, large working parties had been employed in constructing a road through a quagmire, for a considerable distance along the margin of the bayou: by binding together large quantities of reeds, and laying them across the mire; in the course of nine days, these parties had constructed something resembling a road from their encampment to the place of debarkation. Along this insecure track, the British army silently stole their march in the night of the 18th of January. By the treading of the first corps, the bundles of reeds gave way, and their followers had to wade up to their knees in mire. Several perished in the sloughs, the darkness of the night preventing their companions from affording relief. At the mouth of the bayou were a few huts, which afforded shelter for fishermen in the season of catching fish for the New Orleans market; here the troops halted and bivouacked previous to their embarkation. Their provisions being exhausted, a few crumbs of biscuit and a small allowance of rum was their only support. Here they were eighty miles from their ships, the whole of which distance they had to traverse in small open boats; and having but few of these, the embarkation occupied ten days. On the 27th, the whole land and naval forces which remained of this disastrous expedition, to their great joy,

found themselves on board their ships. Their ranks thinned, their chiefs and many of their companions slain, their bodies emaciated with hunger, fatigue, and sickness, they gladly quitted this inauspicious country. The surviving commanding general observes, 'that the services of both army and navy, since their landing on this coast, have been arduous beyond anything he ever before witnessed, and difficulties have been gotten over with an assiduity and perseverance beyond example by all ranks.' A British officer of distinction, an actor in the scene, thus describes his tour from the encampment to the embarkation: 'For some time, our route lay along the high road beside the brink of the river, and was agreeable enough; but as soon as we began to enter upon the path through the marsh, all comfort was at an end. Being constructed of materials so slight, and resting upon a foundation so infirm, the treading of the first corps unavoidably beat it to pieces: those which followed were therefore compelled to flounder on in the best way they could; and by the time the rear of the column gained the morass, all trace of a way had entirely disappeared. But not only were the reeds torn asunder and sunk by the pressure of those who had gone before, but the bog itself, which at first might have furnished a few spots of firm footing, was trodden into the consistency of mud. The consequence was, that every step sunk us to the knees, and frequently higher. Near the ditches, indeed, many spots occurred which we had the utmost difficulty of crossing at all; and as the night was dark, there being no moon, nor any light, except what the stars supplied, it was difficult to select our steps, or even to follow those who called to us that they were safe on the other side. At one of these places, I myself beheld an unfortunate wretch gradually sink, until he totally disappeared. I saw him flounder in, heard him cry for help, and ran forward with the intention of saving him; but before I had taken a second step, I myself sunk at once as high as the breast. I could feel no solid bottom under me, and continued slowly to go deeper and deeper till the mud reached my arms. Instead of endeavoring to help the poor soldier, of whom nothing now could be seen except the head and hands, I was forced to beg assistance for myself, when a leathern canteen strap being thrown me, I laid hold of it, and was dragged out just as my fellow sufferer became invisible. Over roads such as these, did we continue our march during the whole of the night, and in the morning arrived at a place called Fishermen's huts, consisting of a clump of mud-built cottages, standing by the edge of the water, on a part of the morass rather more firm than the rest. Here we were ordered to halt; wearied with exertions and oppressed with want of sleep, I threw myself on the ground without so much as taking off my muddy garments, and in an instant all cares and troubles were forgotten. Nor did I awake from that deep slumber for many hours; when I arose, cold and stiff, and addressed myself to the last morsel of salt pork my wallet contained. Without tents or huts of any description, our bed was the morass, and our only covering the clothes which had not quitted our backs for more than a month; our fires were composed solely of reeds, which, like straw, soon blaze up and expire again, without communicating any degree of warmth. But above all, our provisions were expended, and from what quarter an immediate supply was to be obtained, we could not discover. Our sole dependence was upon the boats. Of these a flotilla lay ready to receive us, in which were already embarked the black corps and the 44th; but they had brought with them only food for their own use, it was therefore necessary that they should reach the fleet and return again before we could be supplied. But as the nearest shipping was eighty miles distant, and the weather might become boisterous, or the winds obstinate, we might starve before any supply could arrive. As soon as the boats returned, regiment after regiment embarked and set sail for the fleet; but the distance being considerable, and the wind foul, many days elapsed before the whole could be got off; by the end of the month, we were all once more on board our former ships."

The following respecting New Orleans, is extracted from a small work, entitled "Travels in Louisiana and the Floridas in the year 1802, etc.," a very popular volume, published in Paris, Aug., 1803. Translated by John Davis:

"New Orleans . . . on the east side of the Mississippi, thirty-five leagues from the sea. . . . The river forms, before the city, a large creek, or kind of semi-circu-

lar basin, here and there widening. It is equivalent for a port on the east, where vessels anchor close to each other, and so near the water side, that by means of a couple of forts, in the form of a bridge, there is an easy communication from the land to each vessel, and their cargoes are discharged with the greatest care.

The depth of the river, taken at the middle of its bed, in front of the city, is about forty fathoms; about half a century ago its depth at the same place was seventy fathoms. Hence it follows (if these measurements be not faulty) that the bed of the river loses in depth what it gains in breadth; it is considerably wider than it was. Its breadth at the same place is about five hundred fathoms, proportionate to the elevation and depression of its waters.

Behind the city is a communication by water with Lake Ponchartrain, which is not more than two leagues distant in a right line toward the north-east from whence small vessels come up with sails, by the way of the Bayou Saint John, which there empties itself. At this confluence is an open canal, which was made some years ago, under the direction of Mons. Carondelet, a work truly useful; which, in procuring to the city the advantages of a double port, purged and drained the neighboring swamps. Formerly, those very vessels navigated the canal which now anchor before the city, but it having been neglected since the departure of the governor, it has lost its advantages in being choked up, and is now the receptacle of only the most diminutive bars.

The city is about 3,600 feet in length: to which may be superadded the suburbs extending like the city along the river, and about half as long; but, strictly speaking, both the city and suburbs are mere outlines, the greater part of the houses being constructed of wood, having but one story, erected often on blocks, and roofed with shingles, the whole being of very combustible wood, that is of cypress. Hence this city has been twice on fire, accidentally, in the interval of a small number of years, in the month of March, 1788, and the month of December, 1794. Yet, notwithstanding, the inhabitants every day build wooden houses, regardless of the consequences.

There are a few houses, more solid and less exposed, on the banks of the river, and in the front streets. Those houses are of burnt brick, some one, others two stories high, having the upper part furnished with an open gallery, which surrounds the building. In the heart of the town one sees nothing but the barracks.

The streets are well laid out and tolerably spacious, but that is all. Bordered by a footway of four or five feet, and throughout unpaved, walking is inconvenient; but what more particularly incommodes the foot-passenger is the projecting flight of steps before every door. The streets being flat, the filth of the houses remains where it was thrown; and during a great part of the year, they are a common sewer, a sink of nastiness, dirt, and corruption.

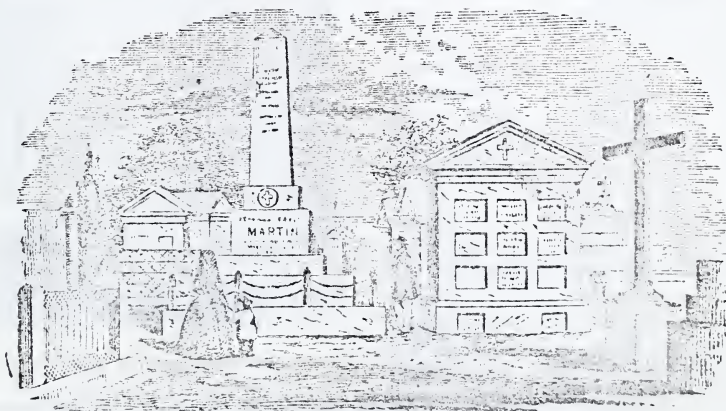
With regard to the public buildings, these are only the Hotel de Ville and the Parochial Church (a plain building of the Ionic order), both built of brick; the former has, however, but one story. They stand near each other, on a spot contiguous to the river. At both times they offered asylums to the inhabitants, many seeking safety under their roofs, instead of exerting themselves to extinguish the flames.

Nearly in the center of the town is a small theater, where, on my arrival, I saw several dramas performed with considerable ability. The company was composed of half a dozen actors and actresses, refugees from the theater of Cape Francois, in the Island of St. Domingo. Nor is this the first instance of Louisiana having profited by the calamities of that island. But by some misunderstanding between the civil and military of the colony, and the indifference of the citizens and colonists, the theatrical troop has been dispersed, and the theater shut. Not long ago, however, some of the citizens were seized with a fit of play acting, and a display of their dramatic talents was made in the *Death of Caesar*. They in consequence stabbed with great vigor, rage, and perseverance, this enemy of Roman liberty, in the person of an old colonist, bald headed from years and corpulent from good living. The venerable colonist sustained his part well. But the spectators, who could not yield themselves to the theatrical illusion, ceased not to see, through the representation, in the hero of ancient Rome, raised from the dead and

transported from the banks of the Tiber to those of the Mississippi, they did not cease a moment to behold the venerable and portly Mr. B*****.

In winter, during the Carnival, there is a public ball open twice a week, one day for the grown people, and another for children. It is nothing but a kind of hall made out of a huge barrack, and stands in such an unfortunate part of the city, that it is only accessible through mud and mire. Each side is accompanied with boxes, where the mammas form a tapestry, and where ladies of younger date, who come merely as spectators, are accommodated with seats. The latter in irony are called *Bredouilles*. . . . The musicians are half a dozen gypsies, or else people of color, scraping their fiddles with all their might. . . . It is hither, in the months of January and February, but seldom sooner or later, that the inhabitants repair, men and women, to forget their cares in dancing; nor will they tire at their country dances, *gros modo*, from seven at night till cock-crowing the next morning. The price of admittance is four Dutch shillings, or half a piastre, for every individual."

The French or Catholic Cemetery, in New Orleans, is an interesting spot. On account of the wet nature of the soil, almost all the dead are interred above ground. The principal cemetery (which is within the city limits), is in three divisions, each of which is covered with a profusion of elevated tombs. Many of these are beautifully constructed, embracing a great variety of architecture. A large portion of the tombs are built against the



View in the French Cemetery, New Orleans.

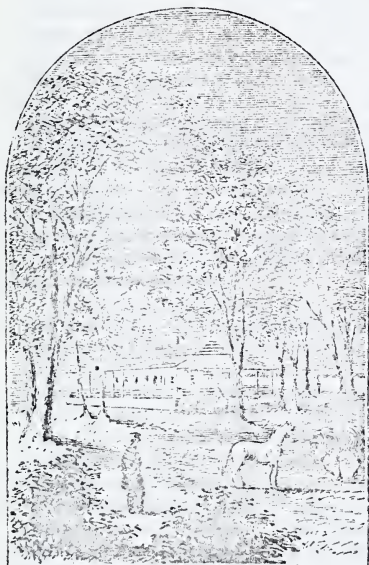
walls which surround each division of the cemetery, having tiers of ovenlike recesses, one above each other, in each of which a body is placed and then walled up by masonry, with a marble slab in front having inscriptions to the memory of the deceased within.

BATON ROUGE, the capital of Louisiana, and the oldest town in the state next to New Orleans, is situated on the east or left bank of the Mississippi, 130 miles above New Orleans, and 1,120 miles S. W. from Washington. It is mostly built on an elevated plain or bluff, some 30 or 40 feet above high water, being the first elevation on the Mississippi from its entrance into the gulf of Mexico. The city contains about 4,000 inhabitants.

The first settlement of Baton Rouge was made by the French, but the difficulty in navigating the river with sail vessels to such a distance from the Gulf was such that it never increased to any great extent. At

the purchase of Louisiana, Baton Rouge being then in the hands of the Spaniards, was taken by Gen. Thomas, and the Spanish rule annihilated. The place is said to have derived its name from the symbols of a bloody massacre by the Chickasaw Indians. A Spanish family, residing here, were murdered by the Indians, and their heads placed on poles along the margin of the river. A party of French, under La Salle, shortly afterward approached the place, and were appalled by the ghastly sight, and named it *Baton Rouge* (Red Stick.)

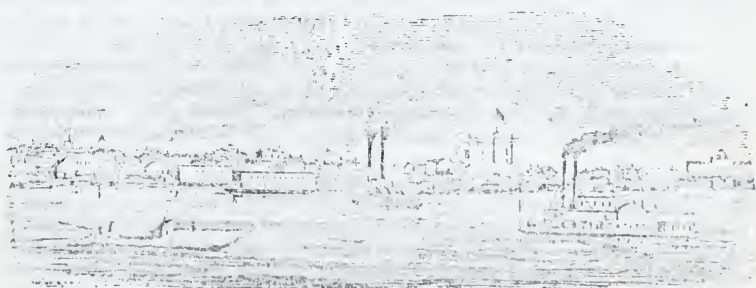
General Zachary Taylor had his family residence, for many years, at



GEN. TAYLOR'S RESIDENCE.

Baton Rouge. It was a small cottage built house, standing upon the bank of the Mississippi, and was originally inhabited by the commandant of the old Spanish fort. "It contained but three large rooms, to which were added in course of time a surrounding veranda, and some out-buildings devoted to domestic purposes. Here Col. Taylor, when ordered to take a command in the army south, refusing the more ostentatious quarters of 'the garrison,' established himself, and here the members of his family resided, more or less, for the quarter of a century that preceded his translation to the 'White House.' At the time of the 'Presidential contest,' the thousands who traveled upon the great highway of the south and west, the Mississippi, were accustomed to stop their steamers in front of this humble looking house, and make the welkin ring with exulting cheers; and nothing could exceed the enthusiasm

when 'old Whitey,' grazing in his retirement, would start at the enlivening sounds, and sweep along the bluff in graceful movements, as if cordially acknowledging the honors paid to his master."



Western view of Baton Rouge.

PURCHASE OF LOUISIANA.*

In 1763, Louisiana was ceded to Spain, and by a secret article in the treaty of St. Ildefonso, concluded in 1800, that power ceded it back to France. Napoleon, however, wished to keep this cession secret until he should have—as he hoped to do—reduced St. Domingo to submission. Failing in this, he was rendered indifferent to his new acquisition. In January, 1803, he sent out Laussat as prefect of the colony, which was the first intimation that the inhabitants had of the transfer which gave them great joy.

On being informed of this retrocession, President Jefferson had dispatched instructions to Robert Livingston, the American minister at Paris, to represent to the First Consul that the occupation of New Orleans by France would endanger the friendly relations between the two nations, and, perhaps, even oblige the United States to make common cause with England; as the possession of this city by the former, by giving her the command of the Mississippi, the only outlet to the produce of the western states, and also of the Gulf of Mexico, so important to American commerce, would render it almost certain that the conflicting interests of the two nations would lead to an open rupture. Mr. Livingston was therefore instructed not only to insist upon the free navigation of the Mississippi, but to negotiate for the acquisition of New Orleans itself and the surrounding territory; and Mr. Monroe was appointed with full powers to assist him in the negotiation.

Bonaparte, who always acted promptly, soon came to the conclusion that what he could not defend, he had better dispose of on the best terms; but before deciding, he summoned two of his ministers in council, on the 10th of April, 1803, and thus addressed them:

"I am fully sensible of the value of Louisiana, and it was my wish to repair the error of the French diplomatists who abandoned it in 1763. I have scarcely recovered it before I run the risk of losing it; but if I am obliged to give it up, it shall hereafter cost more to those who force me to part with it than to those to whom I yield it. The English have despoiled France of all her northern possessions in America, and now they covet those of the south. I am determined that they shall not have the Mississippi. Although Louisiana is but a trifle compared to their vast possessions in other parts of the globe, yet, judging from the vexation they have manifested on seeing it return to the power of France, I am certain that their first object will be to gain possession of it. They will probably commence the war in that quarter. They have twenty vessels in the Gulf of Mexico, and our affairs in St. Domingo are daily getting worse since the death of Le Clerc. The conquest of Louisiana might be easily made, and I have not a moment to lose in putting it out of their reach. I am not sure but what they have already begun an attack upon it. Such a measure would be in accordance with their habits; and in their place I should not wait. I am inclined, in order to deprive them of all prospect of ever possessing it, to cede it to the United States. Indeed, I can hardly say that I cede it, for I do not yet possess it; and if I wait but a short time, my enemies may leave me nothing but an empty title to grant to the Republic I wish to conciliate. They only ask for one city of Louisiana, but I consider the whole colony as lost; and I believe that in the hands of this rising power it will be more useful to the political, and even the commercial interests of France, than if I should attempt to retain it. Let me have both your opinions on the subject."

One of the ministers, Barbe Marbois, fully approved of the cession, but the other opposed it. They debated the matter for a long time, and Bonaparte concluded the conference without making his determination known. The next day, however, he sent for Marbois, and said to him:

"The season for deliberation is over: I have determined to renounce Louisiana. I shall give up not only New Orleans, but the whole colony, without reservation. That I do not undervalue Louisiana I have sufficiently proved, as the object of my first treaty with Spain was to recover it. But, though I regret parting with it, I am convinced it would be folly to persist in trying to keep it. I commission you,

*This article is extracted from Bonner's History of Louisiana.

therefore, to negotiate this affair with the envoys of the United States. Do not wait the arrival of Mr. Monroe, but go this very day and confer with Mr. Livingston. Remember, however, that I need ample funds for carrying on the war, and I do not wish to commence it by levying new taxes. For the last century France and Spain have incurred great expense in the improvement of Louisiana, for which her trade has never indemnified them. Large sums have been advanced to different companies, which have never returned to the treasury. It is fair that I should require repayment for these. Were I to regulate my demands by the importance of this territory to the United States, they would be unbounded; but, being obliged to part with it, I shall be moderate in my terms. Still, remember, I must have fifty millions of francs, and I will not consent to take less. I would rather make some desperate effort to preserve this fine country."

The negotiations commenced that very day. Mr. Monroe arrived at Paris on the 12th of April, and the two representatives of the United States, after holding a private conference, announced that they were ready to treat for the cession of the entire territory, which at first Mr. Livingston had hesitated to do, believing the proposal of the First Consul to be only a device to gain time.

On the 30th of April, 1803, the treaty was signed. The United States were to pay fifteen million dollars for their new acquisition, and be indemnified for some illegal captures; while it was agreed that the vessels and merchandise of France and Spain should be admitted into all the ports of Louisiana free of duty for twelve years.

Bonaparte stipulated in favor of Louisiana that it should as soon as possible be incorporated into the Union, and that its inhabitants should enjoy the same rights, privileges, and immunities as other citizens of the United States; and the third article of the treaty, securing to them these benefits, was drawn up by the First Consul himself, who presented it to the plenipotentiaries with these words:

"Make it known to the people of Louisiana that we regret to part with them; that we have stipulated for all the advantages they could desire; and that France, in giving them up, has insured to them the greatest of all. They could never have prospered under any European government as they will when they become independent. But, while they enjoy the privileges of liberty, let them ever remember that they are French, and preserve for their mother-country that affection which a common origin inspires."

The completion of this important transaction gave equal satisfaction to both parties. "I consider," said Livingston, "that from this day the United States takes rank with the first powers of Europe, and now she has entirely escaped from the power of England;" and Bonaparte expressed a similar sentiment in these words: "By this cession of territory I have secured the power of the United States, and given to England a maritime rival, who at some future time will humble her pride." These words appeared prophetic when the troops of Britain, a few years after, met so signal an overthrow on the plains of Louisiana.

The boundaries of the colony had never been clearly defined, and one of Bonaparte's ministers drew his attention to his obscurity. "No matter," said he, "if there was no uncertainty, it would, perhaps, be good policy to leave some;" and, in fact, the Americans, interpreting to their own advantage this uncertainty, some few years after seized upon the extensive territory of Baton Rouge, which was in dispute between them and the Spaniards.

On the 30th of November, 1803, Laussat took possession of the country, when Casa Calvo and Salcedo, the Spanish commissioners, presented to him the keys of the city, over which the tri-colored flag floated but for a short time. The colony had been under the rule of Spain for a little more than thirty-four years.

On the 20th of December, in the same year, Gen. Wilkinson and Gov. Claiborne, who were jointly commissioned to take possession of the country for the United States, made their entry into New Orleans at the head of the American troops. Laussat gave up his command, and the star-spangled banner supplanted the tri-colored flag of France.

The purchase of Louisiana, which gave the United States their sole claim to the vast territory west of the Mississippi, extending on the north through Oregon to the Pacific, and further south to the Mexican dominions, was the most important

event to the nation which has occurred in this century. From that moment, the interests of the whole people of the Mississippi valley became as one, and its vast natural resources began to be rapidly developed. So great are they that it is destined to become the center of American power—"the mistress of the world."

CULTIVATION OF SUGAR CANE.*

Louisiana, before the rebellion, produced about half the amount of sugar used in the Union, or more than 350,000 hogheads yearly.



GATHERING SUGAR CANE.

Sugar is a modern production: it was unknown to the ancients, and even in the middle ages was a luxury seldom indulged in even by the wealthiest. It is generally conceded that the plant originated in China. The cane was first introduced into Europe by the Saracens, who cultivated it in Sicily, and the islands in the vicinity: by the middle of the 13th century, it became generally known to the European world. Soon after the discovery of America the sugar cane was introduced by the early colonists of St. Domingo and other West India islands, which soon became famous for its cultivation and the extraordinary improvements introduced there in the manufacture of sugar. In 1751, the cane was introduced into Louisiana by Jesuit priests from St. Domingo, who, by the industry of negroes familiar with its cultivation, planted it upon lands now occupied by the most densely populated part of New Orleans. The climate of Louisiana is far inferior to that of the West Indies for the production of sugar; but the cane in time becomes acclimated and insensible to the cold which would destroy that grown farther south.

Until within the memory of those now living, the cultivation of the cane was confined to the vicinity of New Orleans. A great change has taken place: for over two hundred miles on either side of the Mississippi, and on

the banks of many of its tributaries, together with the rich country—almost unknown except to its inhabitants—of Opelousas and Attakapas, lying westwardly on the Gulf coast, the sugar cane flourishes in the greatest perfection. A large number of the great cotton farms on lower Red River, have been successfully changed into the cultivation of cane, and the "high lands," which mean those above the annual rise of the Mississippi, have gratefully rewarded the labor of the sugar planter.

Sugar cane is classed by botanists among the grasses. Its technical description, except to the initiated, gives but an indefinite idea to the general reader. Superficially, it resembles, in the field, the growing corn; but, on examination, it will be found to be very different. The stem, in every species of cane, is round and hard, and divided, at short, irregular intervals, with joints. When it is considered, that

*Abridged from an article in Harper, by T. B. Thorpe, entitled "Sugar and the Sugar Region of Louisiana," and from Olmsted's "Seaboard Slave States."

in Louisiana, the sugar crop has to be gathered and manufactured in ninety days, or be destroyed by the frost, and that one third of the entire crop has to be put into the ground for "seed," and that in the West Indies the season is always favorable for the perfection of the cane, a tolerably correct idea can be formed of the disadvantages under which the Louisiana planter labors, compared to those similarly engaged in more tropical regions.

The largest and most important sugar plantations of Louisiana lie, with few exceptions, upon the low lands of the Mississippi and its outlets. The consequence is, that they are beautifully level, and present a different appearance from any other agricultural portion of the Union. The prairies of the West roll like the swells of the sea, but the fields of Louisiana spread out with an evenness of surface that finds no parallel, except in the undisturbed bosom of the inland lake.

One of the most interesting and picturesque portions of Louisiana devoted to the cultivation of sugar, lying off the banks of the Mississippi River, is the country of "the Attakappas." This earthly paradise—for such a name it really deserves—lies west of the Mississippi River, and borders upon the Gulf of Mexico. It would be almost impossible to describe its character, it is so composed of bayous, lakes, rivers, prairies, and impenetrable swamps. To even a large portion of the oldest inhabitants of the state, Attakappas is an unknown region, and so it is destined to remain, except to its immediate inhabitants, if artificial means are not adopted to facilitate communication. In the spring you can reach the Attakappas in a comfortable steamer; later in the season all direct communication is cut off by the "low water."

Here, upon the borders of the Teche, is the most enchanting scenery and the richest sugar farms of Louisiana. Unlike the Mississippi, the Teche has no levees: its waters never overflow. The stately residences of the planters are surrounded by gardens, the shrubbery of which reaches to the water's edge, and hedges of rose and hawthorn, of lemon and orange, every where meet the ravished eye. Along its shores the magnificent live oak rears itself in all the pride of vigorous "ancient youth," and gives to the gently undulating landscape, the expression so often witnessed in the lordly parks of England.

The pleasant town of FRANKLIN lies upon the Teche, and is the shipping port of the richest sugar parish of the state. Vessels of large size while in the Gulf of Mexico turn aside from the mud-choked mouths of the Mississippi, and floating and cordelling through innumerable bays and bayous, finally work their way into the "interior," and mingle their rigging with the foliage of the forest. Here these argosies, born in the cold regions of the Arctostook, fill their holds with sugar and molasses, and, once freighted, wing their way to the north.

Running parallel with the Teche are magnificent lakes, that consequently lie upon the rear of the plantations. It is the mists from these inland seas, with those of the rivers, that rise over the sugar cane in winter, and protect it from frosts which in less favored regions destroy the planter's prospects. To the accidental location of a plantation with regard to water, it is often indebted for a comparative exemption from freezing cold.

Immediately after the business of one year is closed, and the holidays are at an end, one of the first things attended to, as a commencement of the year's labor, is the clearing out of the ditches, that have become choked up by vegetation in the course of the summer and fall months. The ditches form one of the most important and expensive necessities of a sugar estate; for, with the exception of frost, standing water is the most destructive thing to cane. Rains that fall in torrents in these latitudes, not only have to be guarded against, but also the more insidious and ever-encroaching "transpiration water." To form an idea of what is meant by this term, it must be remembered that the lands on the Mississippi River are protected from annual inundation by embankments known as "levees." In the spring of the year, the Mississippi, as the conductor to the ocean of more than half the running water of the North American continent, rises not only until its banks are full—but would, if left to itself, overflow for a season the whole lower country through which it passes. To remedy this evil, from below New Orleans and up toward the north for hundreds of miles, the river is lined with an embankment, which, in times of flood, confines its waters within its usual channel. These embankments vary from

six to twelve feet in height. When the river is full, it will be noticed that there is an inconceivable pressure made by this artificial column upon the water that lies under the soil of the plantations. Consequently, there is a constant percolation up to the surface; and if this were not provided against by the most liberal and scientific method of ditching, although the sun might shine uninterruptedly for weeks, the cane crop would sicken and die, not as we have seen by the descending rains, but by the *ascending* flood that at these particular times literally boils and billows under the earth.

The highest lands upon the Mississippi River are those forming the banks; as you go inland, they gradually sink. In draining a plantation, it is customary to cut parallel ditches about two hundred feet apart, from the front to the rear of the plantation, with cross ditches every six hundred feet. This complication of artificial canals requires not only an enormous outlay of capital and occupation of valuable land, but also taxes the scientific engineer to give them their proper levels. In many instances, it is found impossible to accomplish this, and costly draining-machines have to be called into service. There is erected the steam-engine, that in every revolution tumbles the superabundant water that is running so merrily in the ditches over the back levee into the swamp.

There are plantations on which within a square mile can be found from twenty to thirty miles of ditching. Often the "bayous" of the country are cleared out, and form an important natural adjunct in carrying off the surplus water, but to the labor of man is to be ascribed the making of the most formidable channels; for on some plantations can be seen a regular system of deep and carefully constructed canals. It may be with truth said, that the industry and capital expended in Louisiana alone, to preserve the state from inundation, have erected works of internal improvement which, united, far surpass in extent, and if concentrated within the vision of a single eye, would be superior in magnificence to the renowned pyramids of Egypt.

This extensive ditching has required the labor of years to accomplish. At first very little was needed, for only the highest lands of the river were cultivated. As plantation after plantation was opened, and the levees increased, this ditching became more important—in fact, the value of the plantation for productiveness depended upon their construction. Where the "plantation force" is large, the negroes do most of this important work, and generally are able to keep all clean when once they are made. But the same hardy and improvident son of Erin that levels mountains at the north, or tunnels through their rocky hearts, that flourishing cities may be built, and railways be constructed, finds his way to the distant south; and with spade and wheelbarrow, is ever ready to move about the rich soil with an energy and ease that finds no rival except in the labors of an earthquake.

For planting, new or fallow ground is prepared by plowing the whole surface. The ground being then harrowed, drills are opened with a double mold-board plow seven feet apart. Cuttings of cane for seed are to be planted in them. These are reserved from the crop in the autumn, when some of the best cane on the plantation is selected for this purpose, while still standing. This is cut off at the roots, and laid up in heaps or stacks, in such a manner that the leaves and tops protect the stalks from frost. The heaps are called mattresses; they are two or three feet high, and as many yards across. At the planting season they are opened, and the cane comes out moist and green, and sweet, with the buds or eyes, which protrude at the joints, swelling. The immature top parts of the stalk are cut off, and they are loaded into carts, and carried to the ground prepared for planting. The carts used are large, with high side-boards, and are drawn by three mules—one large one being in the shafts, and two lighter ones abreast, before her. The drivers are boys, who use the whip a great deal, and drive rapidly. In the field, says Olmsted, in his book, I found the laborers working in three divisions—the first, consisting of light hands, brought the cane by armsfull from the cart, and laid it by the side of the furrows; the second planted it, and the third covered it. Planting is done by laying the cuttings at the bottom of the furrow, in such a way that there shall be three always together, with the eyes of each a little removed from those of the others—that is, all "breaking joints." They are thinly covered with earth, drawn over them with hoes. The other tools were so well selected on this plantation.

that I expressed surprise at the clumsiness of the hoes, particularly as the soil was light, and entirely free from stones. "Such hoes as you use at the north would not last a negro a day," said the planter.

Cane will grow for several years from the roots of the old plants, and, when it is allowed to do so, a very considerable part of the expense is avoided; but the vigor of the plant is less when growing from this source than when starting from cuttings, and the crop, when thus obtained, is annually less and less productive, until, after a number of years, depending upon the rigor of the seasons, fresh shoots cease to spring from the stubble. This sprouting of cane from the stools of the last crop is termed "ratooning." In the West India plantations the cane is frequently allowed to ratoon for eight successive crops. In Louisiana it is usual to plant once in three years, trusting to the ratooning for two crops only, and this was the practice on Mr. R.'s plantation. The cost of sugar growing would be very greatly increased if the crop needed planting every year: for all the cane grown upon an acre will not furnish seed for more than four acres—consequently one twelfth of the whole of each crop has to be reserved for the planting of the following crop, even when two thirds of this is to be of ratoon cane.

Planting is finished in a favorable season—early in March. Tillage is commenced immediately afterward, by plowing from the rows of young cane, and subsequently continued very much after the usual plan of tillage for potatoes, when planted in drills, with us. By or before the first of July, the crop is all well earthed up, the rows of cane growing from the crest of a rounded bed, seven feet wide, with deep water-furrows between each. The cane is at this time five or six feet high; and that growing from each bed forms arches with that of the next, so as to completely shade the ground. The furrows between the beds are carefully cleaned out; so that in the most drenching torrents of rain, the water is rapidly carried off into the drains, and thence to the swamp; and the crop then requires no further labor upon it until frost is apprehended, or the season for grinding arrives.

The nearly three months' interval, commencing at the intensest heat of summer, corresponds in the allotment of labor to the period of winter in northern agriculture, because the winter itself, on the sugar plantations, is the planting-season. The negroes are employed in cutting and carting wood for boiling the cane juice, in making necessary repairs or additions to the sugar-house, and otherwise preparing for the grinding-season.

The grinding-season is the harvest of the sugar planter; it commences in October, and continues for two or three months, during which time, the greatest possible activity and the utmost labor of which the hands are capable, are required to secure the product of the previous labor of the year. Mr. R. assured me that during the last grinding-season nearly every man, woman, and child on his plantation, including his overseer and himself, were at work fully eighteen hours a day. From the moment grinding first commences, until the end of the season, it is never discontinued; the fires under the boiler never go out, and the negroes rest only for six hours in the twenty-four, by relays—three quarters of them being constantly at work.

Notwithstanding the severity of the labor required of them at this time, Mr. R. said that his negroes were as glad as he was himself to have the time for grinding arrive, and they worked with greater cheerfulness than at any other season. How can those persons who are always so ready to maintain that the slaves work less than free laborers in free countries, and that for that reason they are to be envied by them, account for this? That at Mr. R.'s plantation it was the case that the slaves enjoyed most that season of the year when the hardest labor was required of them, I have, in addition to Mr. R.'s own evidence, good reason to believe, which I shall presently report. And the reason of it evidently is, that they are then better paid: they have better and more varied food and stimulants than usual, but especially they have a degree of freedom, and of social pleasure, and a variety of occupation which brings a recreation of the mind, and to a certain degree gives them strength for, and pleasure in, their labor. Men of sense have discovered that when they desire to get extraordinary exertions from their slaves, it is better to offer them rewards than to whip them; to encourage them rather than drive them.

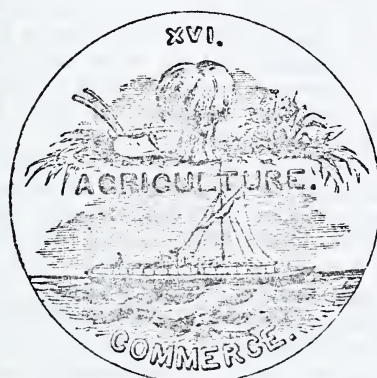
If the season has been favorable, so that the cane is strong, and well matured, it will endure a smart early frost without injury, particularly if the ground is well drained, but as rapidly as possible, after the season has arrived at which frosts are to be expected, the whole crop is cut, and put in mattresses, from which it is taken to the grinding-mill as fast as it can be made to use it.

The business of manufacturing sugar is everywhere carried on in connection with the planting of the cane. The shortness of the season during which the cane can be used is the reason assigned for this: the proprietors would not be willing to trust to custom mills to manufacture their produce with the necessary rapidity. If cane should be cultivated in connection with other crops—that is, on small farms, instead of great “sugar only” plantations—neighborhood custom-mills would probably be employed.

The other prominent towns of Louisiana are Opelousas, Natchitoches, Alexandria, and Shreveport, the last named, on Red River, being the most important commercial town in Western Louisiana, and with a population of about 3,000.

T E N N E S S E E.

TENNESSEE was originally included within the limits of North Carolina. The first establishment of the Anglo-Saxon race within its borders was Fort



STATE ARMS OF TENNESSEE.

Loudon, on the north bank of Little Tennessee or Watauga River, about a mile above the mouth of Tellico River, and some 30 miles south-west-erly from Knoxville. This fortifica-tion was erected by Andrew Lewis, in 1756, who was sent here for that pur-pose by the Earl of Loudon, the gov-ernor of Virginia and commander of the King's troops in America. The fort was garrisoned by British troops, and this, with other fortified places established afterward, induced large numbers of emigrants to settle in the vicinity. In the spring of 1758, the garrison of Fort Loudon was augment-ed to 200 men. In a few months, by the arrival of traders and hunters, it

grew into a thriving village. At the time Tennessee was first explored, its territory was a vast and almost unoccupied wilderness, over which the Indian hunters seldom roamed. Being equi-distant from the settled territories of the southern and northern tribes, it remained a kind of neutral ground. By reason of the mildness of the climate, and the rich pasturage furnished by its varied ranges of plain and mountain, in common with Kentucky, it had become a great park in which the beasts of the forest ranged without much molestation. The Cherokees, in the south-east corner of the territory, appear to have been the only Indian tribe who had any permanent location in the state. The other parts of Tennessee were either claimed or occupied as hunting grounds by the Chickasaws, Choctaws, and Shawnees. The *Six Nations* also claimed a right to the grounds north and east of the Tennessee River, and the first cession of lands by any of the aboriginal tribes was made by them.

The second fort built in Tennessee was in the north east corner of the state, within the present limits of Sullivan county, near the Virginia line, in 1758, by Col. Bird, in the French and Indian war. It was erected on a

beautiful eminence on the north bank of the Holston, opposite the upper end of Long Island, and from this circumstance called Long Island Fort. The army wintered here in 1758. It was at that time supposed to be within the limits of Virginia. After the treaty with the Indians in 1768, many emigrants flocked into Tennessee, and settled on the banks of the Holston and Watauga Rivers. North of Holston, in what is now Sullivan and Hawkins counties, was believed to be in Virginia; south of the Holston was admitted to be within North Carolina. Of those who ventured furthest into the wilderness, with their families, was Capt. William Bean. He came from Virginia, and settled early in 1769 on Boone's Creek, a tributary of the Watauga. His son, *Russel Bean*, was the first white child born in Tennessee.

In 1769 or 1770, a company of ten hunters built two boats and trapping canoes, loaded them with the results of their hunting, and descended the Cumberland River—the first navigation and the first commerce probably ever carried on upon that stream by the Anglo-Americans. Where Nashville now stands they discovered the French Lick, and found immense numbers of buffalo and other wild game. Descending the river to the Ohio, they met with Indians, who, while they stole a few articles, offered them no personal injury. On descending the Ohio they met with Frenchmen trading to the Illinois, who treated them with friendship. From thence they sailed down the Mississippi as far as the then Spanish town of Natchez. Here some of them remained while the others returned.

In 1760, the Cherokees besieged Fort Loudon, with its garrison of 200 men. The garrison, having subsisted for a month principally on the flesh of horses and dogs, agreed to capitulate, on condition they should be allowed to return to Virginia or Fort Prince George. After marching about fifteen miles from the fort, they were surrounded and treacherously attacked by nearly 500 warriors; with horrid yells they rushed, tomahawk in hand, upon the feeble and emaciated troops, and massacred nearly all of them on the spot. The next year, Col. Grant, with a body of 2,600 men (Highlanders, Provincials and friendly Indians), marched into the Cherokee country, gave battle to the Indians, burned their dwellings, and laid waste their country.

The celebrated Francis Marion was a subordinate officer in this campaign, and in writing to a friend, he gave the following touching and picturesque account: "We arrived at the Indian towns in the month of July. As the ground was rich and the season had been favorable, the corn was bending under the double weight of luscious ears and pods and clustering beans. The furrows seemed to rejoice under their precious loads—the fields stood thick with bread. We encamped the first night in the woods, near the fields, where the whole army feasted on the young corn, which, with fat venison, made a most delicious treat. The next morning, we proceeded, by order of Col. Grant, to burn down the Indian cabins. Some of our men seemed to enjoy this cruel work, laughing very heartily at the curling flames, as they mounted, loud crackling, over the tops of the huts. But to me, it appeared a shocking sight. 'Poor creatures!' thought I, 'we surely need not grudge you such miserable habitations.' But when we came, according to orders, to cut down the fields of corn, I could scarcely refrain from tears. For who could see the stalks, that stood so stately, with broad, green leaves, and gayly tasseled shocks, filled with sweet, milky fluid, and flour, the staff of life—who, I say, without grief, could see these sacred plants sinking under our sword, with all their precious load, to wither, and rot untasted in the mourning fields! I saw everywhere around, the footsteps of little Indian children, where they had lately played under the shelter of the rustling corn. No doubt they had often looked up with joy, to the swelling shocks, and gladdened when they thought of their abundant cakes for the coming winter. When we are gone, thought I, they will return, and, peep-

ing through the weeds with tearful eyes, will mark the ghastly ruin poured over their homes, and the happy fields where they had so often played."

The result of these measures was decisive, and a deputation of chiefs visited the camp to sue for peace. Among them was Attakulla, a chief who had been opposed to the war, and who thus addressed Col. Grant:

"You live at the water side, and are in light. We are in darkness; but hope all will be clear. I have been constantly going about doing good; and though I am tired, yet I am come to see what can be done for my people, who are in great distress. As to what has happened, I believe it has been ordered by our Father above. We are of a different color from the white people. They are superior to us. But one God is Father of us all, and we hope what is past will be forgotten. God Almighty made all people. There is not a day but that some are coming into, and others going out of the world. The Great King told me the path should never be crooked, but open for every one to pass and repass. As we all live in one land, I hope that we shall all live as one people."

Peace was formally ratified, and both expressed the hope that it might last as long as the sun would shine and the rivers run.

In 1773, the population of Tennessee was found to have increased to a very considerable extent. In the succeeding year a war broke out with the northern Indians, residing across the Ohio, and terminated by their suing for peace. The year 1776 is rendered memorable by a formidable invasion of the Cherokees, whom the British had incited to attack the infant settlements. A strong force from Virginia and the Carolinas soon dispersed the Indians, and peace was again restored. When the constitution of North Carolina was formed, in 1776, Tennessee (then the District of Washington) sent deputies to the convention. In the southern campaign of 1780, at the brilliant exploit at King's Mountain, when the British troops under Col. Ferguson, were either taken or slain, the Tennessee settlers, under Col. Sevier, bore a most important share in the conflict. Col. Sevier's command was 240 men, all well mounted and nearly all armed with a *Deckhard* rifle.* The following relative to this period is from Ramsay's *Annals of Tennessee*:

"The camp on Watauga, on the twenty-fifth of September, presented an animated spectacle. With the exception of a few colonists on the distant Cumberland, the entire military force of what is now Tennessee was assembled at the Sycamore Shoals. Scarce a single gunman remained, that day, at his own house. The young, ardent and energetic had generally enrolled themselves for the campaign against Ferguson. The less vigorous and more aged, were left, with the inferior guns, in the settlements for their protection against the Indians; but all had attended the rendezvous. The old men were there to counsel, encourage and stimulate the youthful soldier, and to receive, from the colonels, instructions for the defense of the stations during their absence. Others were there to bring, in rich profusion, the products of their farms, which were cheerfully furnished gratuitously and without stint, to complete the outfit of the expedition. Gold and silver they had not, but subsistence and clothing, and equipment and the fiery charger—anything the frontier-man owned, in the cabin, the field or the range, was offered, unostentatiously, upon the altar of his country. The wife and the sister were there, and, with a suppressed sigh, witnessed the departure of the husband and the brother. And there, too, were the heroic mothers, with a mournful but noble pride, to take a fond farewell of their gallant sons.

The sparse settlements of this frontier had never before seen assembled together a concourse of people so immense and so evidently agitated by great excitement. The large mass of the assembly were volunteer riflemen, clad in the home-spun of their wives and sisters, and wearing the hunting shirt so characteristic of the back-woods soldiery, and not a few of them the makers of their own manufacture. A few of the officers were better dressed, but all in citizens' clothing. The

* This rifle was remarkable for the precision and distance of its shot. It was generally three feet six inches long, weighed about seven pounds, and ran about seventy bullets to the pound of lead. It was so called from Deckhard, the maker, in Lancaster, Pa.

mien of Campbell was stern, authoritative and dignified. Shelby was grave, taciturn and determined. Sevier, vivacious, ardent, impulsive and energetic. McDowell, moving about with the ease and dignity of a colonial magistrate, inspiring veneration for his virtues and an indignant sympathy for the wrongs of himself and his co-exiles. All were completely wrapt in the absorbing subject of the revolutionary struggle, then approaching its acme, and threatening the homes and families of the mountaineers themselves. Never did mountain recess contain within it, a loftier or a more enlarged patriotism—never a cooler or more determined courage."

At the peace these brave men again sought their mountain homes and devoted themselves to the improvement of their settlements. In 1782, commissioners were appointed by government to explore *Davidson county* (at that time quite extensive), and report which part was best for the payment of the bounty promised to officers and soldiers of North Carolina during the Revolution. A settlement had been made in this part of Tennessee, by Col. Robertson and some two or three hundred followers, at Nashville, in 1780, and the county received its name in honor of Gen. Davidson, who fell in opposing Cornwallis in 1781. The military warrants were made out, many of the officers and soldiers came to this section to secure and settle their lands, and many purchasers from various states of the Union became settlers.

In 1785, the inhabitants of the counties of Sullivan, Washington, and Greene, lying directly west of the Alleghany Mountains, feeling the inconveniences of having a government so remote as that of North Carolina, framed a constitution, elected their governor, and erected themselves into an independent state by the name of the *State of Franklin*. This premature state was to comprehend "all that tract of country which lies between the mountains and the *suck* or *whirl* of Tennessee River." The legislature of the new state met at Jonesboro': John Sevier was elected governor; a judiciary system was established, David Campbell, Joshua Gist, and John Anderson were appointed judges. These proceedings occasioned great confusion and warm disputes, which continued until 1788, when the thoughts of independency were relinquished and tranquillity was restored. The territory was finally ceded to the United States in 1790, and a territorial government was established under the name of the "Territory of the United States south-west of the river Ohio." William Blount, of North Carolina, was appointed the first governor.

In 1794, Tennessee was constituted a separate territory, the general assembly of which met at Knoxville. In 1795, the inhabitants of the territory numbered 77,262, of which number 10,613 were slaves. The next year, 1796, a convention met at Knoxville and formed a constitution for state government, and the name of *Tennessee* was adopted for the new state. The constitution was approved by congress, June 1, 1796, and Tennessee entered the Union. John Sevier was elected the first governor. William Blount and William Cocke were elected the first senators to congress. The first constitution remained unaltered for about forty years. The present constitution was adopted in 1835.

Tennessee is bounded N. by Kentucky and Virginia, S. by Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi, E. by North Carolina, and W. by Arkansas and Missouri, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River. It extends east and west between $81^{\circ} 37'$ and $90^{\circ} 28'$ W. long., and between 35° and $36^{\circ} 35'$ N. lat. Its mean length from east to west is 400 miles, breadth, 114. Its area is computed at about 45,000 square miles.

The state is usually considered as being divided into three nominal divisions,

severally known as *East*, *West*, and *Middle Tennessee*. East Tennessee, bordering on North Carolina, is an elevated region, containing numerous lofty and picturesque ranges of the Cumberland and Laurel Mountains, and other conspicuous branches of the Alleghany range, mostly covered to their summits with noble forests. West Tennessee, between the Mississippi and Tennessee Rivers, has generally an undulating surface, though some parts are quite level, with a light but productive soil, producing large quantities of cotton. Middle Tennessee is uneven and hilly, though not mountainous, and the lands are of good quality.

Tennessee is watered in various directions by important streams. The Mississippi washes its western borders; the Tennessee crosses the state between Middle and Western Tennessee; the Cumberland has its principal course in this state; the Holston, Clinch, French, Broad, and Hiwassee, are branches of the Tennessee. The mineral resources of the state are very great, consisting of iron, coal, copper, lead, etc. Indian corn, tobacco and cotton are the principal staples. In 1851, at the World's Fair, the wool of Tennessee was awarded the premium of the "Golden Fleece."* The climate is mild and genial, being free from the extremes of heat and cold. Population in 1790, 35,791; in 1820, 422,813; in 1840, 829,215; in 1850, 1,002,725, in 1860, 1,146,640, of whom 287,112 were slaves.

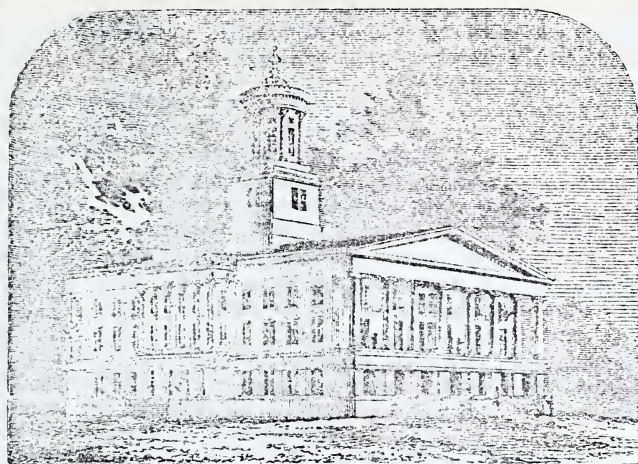


Northern view of Nashville.

The view shows the appearance of Nashville as it is entered upon the Louisville and Nashville Railroad. On the left is seen the suspension bridge over Cumberland River, with part of the steamboat landing and the steam printing establishment of the Methodist Episcopal Church South. The State House appears on the extreme right.

NASHVILLE, city, port of entry, county seat for Davidson county, and capital of the state of Tennessee, is situated on the left bank of Cumberland River, at the head of steamboat navigation, about 200 miles, following the

* The mountain district of Tennessee, North Carolina and Virginia combine every chief feature which adapts a country to the raising of sheep on a large scale. The warm and sheltered valleys where little snow ever falls, afford a winter home for the flocks, where little defense from storms and cold is required, and where much of their food can be obtained



State House of Tennessee, Nashville.

The State House, a most noble and magnificent structure, stands on the highest ground of the city, one hundred and seventy-five feet above the river. Its dimensions are 240 by 135 feet, and cost about a million of dollars.

in the fields and woodlands; while the hill slopes and mountain sides will afford precisely the kind of pasture most conducive to the health of the animals and the excellence of the fleece. In such a climate, and in such circumstances, the finest and softest wools of the world are produced. In proof of this, it may be stated that at the World's Fair, in London, when all the world was engaged in competition, the wool which received the prize as the best which the nations then could boast, was sheared from the flocks which had been reared in this very region, on the hills of East Tennessee. Mark R. Cockrell, Esq., an extensive wool grower of Tennessee, attended the World's Fair in London, in 1851, and presented some of his wool in competition with the wools of Europe. The contest, under the rules, was between countries, not individuals. The premium of the 'Golden Fleece' was awarded to Tennessee. The legislature of that state, the winter following, passed a resolution tendering Mr. C. its thanks, and ordering the preparation of a gold medal, to be given to him as a token of respect. On its presentation he said, 'Germany, Spain, Saxony and Silesia were there; the competition was honorable, strong and fair. Nature gave me the advantage in climate, but the noble lords and worthy princes of Europe did not know it until we met in the Crystal Palace, in London, before millions of spectators. While their flocks were housed six months in the year, to shelter them from the snow of a high latitude, mine were roaming over the green pastures of Tennessee, warmed by the genial influence of a southern sun—the fleece thus softened and rendered oily by the warmth, and green food producing a fine, even fiber.'—*Prof. Christy's Report.*

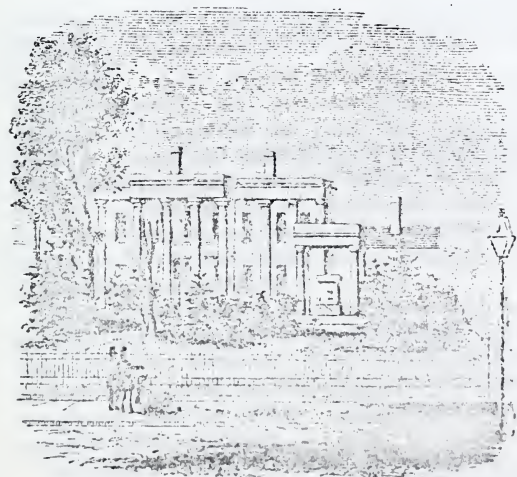
The mountain regions of this section, elevated above the *frost belt*, it is believed, possess the very best climate and soil east of the Rocky Mountains, for the production of fruit, particularly the peach and the grape. On the elevations grapes and peaches are as certain a crop, as is corn generally elsewhere. In some instances, European grapes have, for twenty years, borne twenty consecutive crops, without mildew or rot, and producing a third more than in France. The dried peaches of Tennessee and North Carolina have an unrivaled reputation in northern markets. In time this will probably become the great wool growing, wine producing, and fruit raising region of the Atlantic states. Population, capital, and improved railroad facilities are alone wanting to soon bring this consummation. The great tide of emigration has now nearly reached the broad belt of arid land that stretches for hundreds of miles across the continent, east of the Rocky Mountains. When its streams are diverted southward, to the beautiful climate of the south-western Alleghanies, we shall see this noble country rapidly developing its natural riches to the hand of industry and enterprise.

course of the river, from its entrance into the Ohio; it is 684 miles W. by S. from Washington, 230 N. E. from Memphis, and 206 S. W. of Lexington, Ky. The city, built on an elevated bluff of limestone, from 50 to 175 feet above the river, presents an imposing appearance, and is surrounded by a beautiful and fertile country. On the public square is the court-house, market-house, and other fine buildings. The University of Nashville, founded in 1806, and its medical school long have had a fine reputation. Population in 1860, 23,715.

In 1779, Capt. James Robertson, with two or three hundred others, left the Holston country for the purpose of making a settlement at French Lick, where it appears that some Frenchmen had a station as early as 1764. This was on the spot where the city of Nashville is now built. Capt. Robertson's company brought with them a good many horses and cattle. Their route lay through the Kentucky country, and as there were no roads, and being impeded with snow storms, they did not arrive at the French Lick until January, 1780. The snow was of great depth and continued for an extraordinary length of time, so that it was with much difficulty that men and beasts could travel, and they suffered greatly in obtaining food, or died of want and cold combined. In 1783, the Legislature of North Carolina established a town here calling it Nashville, in honor of Col. Francis Nash, who fell at the head of his regiment at the battle of Germantown.

The following is the inscription on the monument standing in the front yard of the Polk mansion, on Vine-street in the city of Nashville:

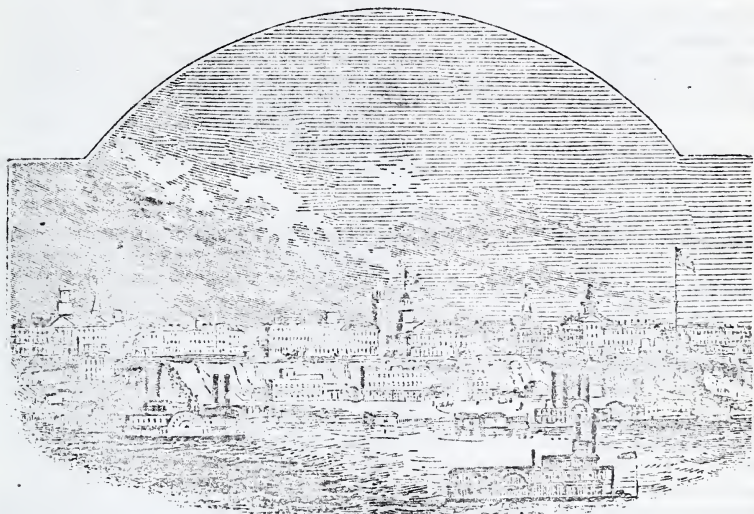
"The mortal remains of JAMES KNOX POLK are resting in the vault beneath. He was born in Mecklenburgh Co., North Carolina, and emigrated with his father, Samuel Polk, to Tennessee in 1806. The beauty of virtue was illustrated in his life: the excellence of Christianity was exemplified in his death. His life was devoted to the public service. He was elevated successively to the first places in the State and Federal Government: a member of the General Assembly; a member of Congress, and chairman of the most important Congressional Committees; Speaker of the House of Representatives; Governor of Tennessee, and President of the United States. By his public policy he defined, established and extended the boundaries of his Country. He planted the Laws of the American Union on the shores of the Pacific. His



MANSION AND MONUMENT OF PRESIDENT POLK.

influence and his counsels tended to organize the National Treasury on the principles of the Constitution, and apply the rules of Navigation, Trade and Industry. James Knox Polk, 10th President of the U. S., born Nov. 2, 1795, died June 15, 1849."

MEMPHIS, city, is on the east bank of the Mississippi, beautifully situated on a bluff some twenty to thirty feet above the highest floods, 191 miles W.S.W. from Nashville; 420 below St. Louis, and 781 miles above New Orleans. It lies on one of the only three bluffs on the Lower Mississippi, where it is *possible*, without great expense for artificial works, to build a



View of Memphis from the West bank of the Mississippi.

The Exchange, or Court House building, is seen on the left; the principal Steamboat Landing on the extreme right. The front row of mercantile buildings appear on the summit of the Bluff. The view shows the city as seen from the Memphis and Little Rock Railroad, on the Arkansas side of the Mississippi.

large town. It has great commercial advantages, and is on the line of important railroads, built or contemplated, in almost every direction. Memphis, since 1850, when its population was 6,427, has taken an astonishing stride in commercial prosperity, it being now the most growing and prosperous city of the south-west, and second in importance only to New Orleans. It has a superior system of free schools, and a large number of mercantile and manufacturing establishments. Connected with the rich cotton growing region of North Mississippi, it is a great point for the shipment of cotton. Population is about 35,000.

The adjacent country is one of the most beautiful and extensive bodies of tillable land contiguous to the Mississippi River, between the mouth of the Ohio and New Orleans. It is elevated, dry and level, possessing a fertile and productive soil, and extending east, north-east, south and south-east for nearly one hundred miles. Corn, cotton, wheat, and tobacco, can be cultivated to great advantage.

As early as 1736, the Bluff on which Memphis now stands, was, on account of its superior advantages, selected by the French as a suitable position for a garrison. It appears, however, to have been inhabited by uncivilized Indians and wild beasts, in 1782. In 1783, the Spanish government directed W. H. Gayoso, then acting governor of the Territory of Louisiana, to take steps for the occupation of this point. The following historical items are extracted from Rainey's Memphis City Directory for 1855-6:

"The Indians manifesting a disposition to receive the officers of the Spanish Government, Gov. Gayoso came up with a sufficient number of troops and built Fort St. Fernando, on the bluff, at the mouth of Wolf River, the site of which is now covered by a portion of the Navy Yard. The Spanish continued in occupation of this garrison, until the ratification of the treaty by which Louisiana was ceded to the United States Government, and 33 degrees of north latitude established as the boundary line between the two governments.

Soon after this, Gen. Pike (then Lieut. Pike), was sent by the government of the United States, with troops, to occupy Fort St. Fernando, and the Spanish troops evacuating it, crossed the river and established Camp Lesperance (afterward called Camp Good Hope), at or near the termination of the Military Road. Gen. Wilkinson came on soon after Lieut. Pike arrived, and dismantled Fort St. Fernando, and established Fort Pickering.

In 1783, the government of the United States granted to John Rice the tract of land on which Memphis stands, who devised it to Elisha Rice, and he sold it to John Overton.

In 1819, John Overton sold one undivided half of the tract to Gen. Andrew Jackson and Gen. James Winchester, and these three (Overton, Jackson and Winchester), laid out the town of Memphis."

The first public sale of lots was made in 1820, at which front lots were deemed high at one hundred dollars each, and back lots in proportion. The principal business of the place was confined to the Indian trade for several years afterward, and the new town attracted but little attention until after 1830, in which year it was but a village of 701 inhabitants.

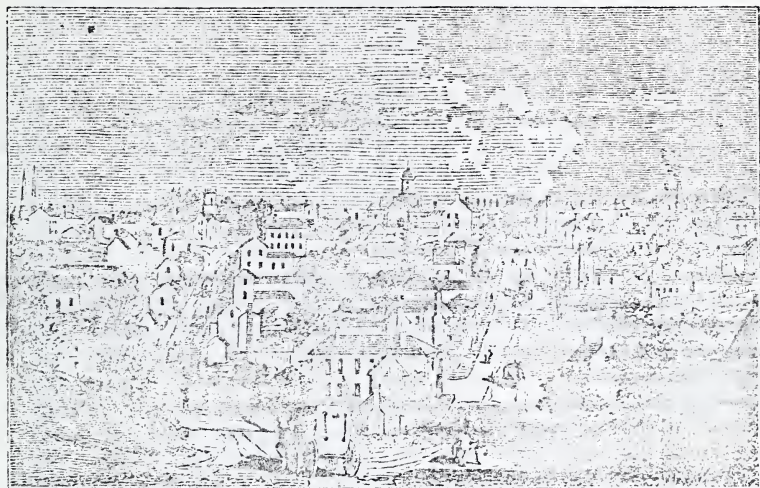
"In 1841, Congress appointed Commissioners to select and survey a site for a Navy Yard upon the Mississippi River, who, after a toilsome examination of its whole length, from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, reported the position at the mouth of Wolf, as being the most suitable one they could find for the purpose; and, at the session of 1842-3, Congress passed a bill for the erection of a Navy Yard at Memphis.

The principal portion of the ground which the Navy Yard occupies, has been formed by deposits of sand and mud from the river, since 1830.

KNOXVILLE is situated on the north bank of Holston River, 4 miles below the junction of the French Broad River, 185 miles east from Nashville, and 204 from Lexington, Ky. It is quite a flourishing place, a central point of intersection of all the great railroads of the country, east, west, north and south. Fine marble quarries and iron ore abound in this section, and beds of bituminous coal on the line of the railroads. The river is navigable downward for steamboats at all seasons, and in the spring some 30 or 40 miles above to Dandridge. Few places possess such a variety of scenery as can be found within the limits of Knoxville, exhibiting on the banks of the Holston the wild and picturesque beauty of nature, the hills and valleys of the cultivated country, the manufacturing village, and the features of the city. Knoxville contains six churches, the county buildings, of which the jail, a castellated building, makes a striking appearance, the University buildings, and the State Deaf and Dumb Asylum. Population about 9,000. East Tennessee College, or University, is located on a commanding eminence, upward of 200 feet high, and about half a mile from the court house. This institution was founded in 1792.

Knoxville was first laid out by Gen. James White, the first patentee. East Knoxville was laid out by Moses White, his son, and at first was called Mechanicsburg. The west end of the town was laid out by Col. John Williams, and was for some time called Williamsburg. Gov. Blount's residence was on Barbara Hill, where the University buildings now stands. The hill received its name from Barbara, the daughter of the governor, who was

born on its summit. The Presbyterian church was the first house of worship erected in the place, Rev. Wm. Carrick the first minister. Dr. Strong, the first physician, was previously a surgeon on board the U. S. frigate Constitution. John Crosier, it is believed, was the first post-master. The Hon.



South-western view of Knoxville.

The view shows the appearance of Knoxville, descending the hill on the old country road in front of the University. Part of Cumberland-street is seen on the left; Main-street on the right; the Cupola of the Court House in the central part; Hampden Sidney Academy on the extreme left; the Female Institute on the right.

Hugh L. White, U. S. senator, who died in 1840, was the son of Gen. White. Robert Huston was the first sheriff, and Robert Armstrong the first surveyor. John Hood was the first, or one of the first printers in Knoxville; he printed the Knoxville Gazette.

The following are towns of local note in different parts of Tennessee, of from 1,000 to 4,000 inhabitants each: *Chattanooga* is situated on the left or south bank of Tennessee River, in the south part of the state, and near the boundary lines of Georgia and Alabama, 150 miles S.E. of Nashville, 447 from Charleston, S. C., and 432 from Savannah, Geo. It is the center of several important railroads, both completed and progressing, which extend from Richmond, Charleston and Savannah on the Atlantic, to the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers. The place is, for the most part, situated in a narrow valley, in the midst of hills or mountainous elevations on almost every side. *Murfreesboro'*, the county seat of Rutherford county, is on the line of the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, about 30 miles S.E. from Nashville. It was the capital of the state from 1817 to 1827. It contains several churches, the county buildings, an academy, and Union College, under the patronage of the Baptist denomination, established in 1818. *Murfreesboro'* is well laid out, in the midst of a fertile region of corn and tobacco land, and has a large trade in the products of an extensive and highly cultivated district. *Jonesboro'*, the county seat of Washington county, about 100 miles north-easterly from Knoxville, contains about 700 inhabitants. It was laid off and established as a seat of justice for Washington county, in 1779, by

the legislature of North Carolina: it is the oldest town in Tennessee. It was named in honor of Willie Jones, Esq., of Halifax county, North Carolina, a friend to the growth and prosperity of the western counties, and an active patriot of the Revolution. *Lebanon*, capital of Wilson county, 30 miles east of Nashville, is distinguished as a seat of learning. Here is Cumberland University, a flourishing institution, founded in 1844, under the direction of the Cumberland Presbyterians; the law school attached to it was founded in 1847, and has more students than any other in the Union. *Shelbyville*, capital of Bedford county, is on Duck River, and at the end of a branch of the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, 59 miles S.S.E. of Nashville. *McMinnville*, capital of Warren county, on the McMinnville and Manchester Railroad, 75 miles S.E. from Nashville. *Winchester*, capital of Franklin, on the Winchester and Alabama Railroad, 2 miles south from the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, and 84 miles S.E. of Nashville. A branch of the Winchester and Alabama Railroad connects this place with Huntsville, Alabama. The tunnel which has been cut in this county, through the Cumberland Mountains, for the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, is one of the most magnificent works of the kind in the Union, extending 2200 feet, mostly through solid rock. *Fayetteville* is the capital of Lincoln county, 73 miles S. by E. from Nashville. *Cleveland*, county seat of Bradley, on the East Tennessee and Georgia Railroad, 83 miles S.W. of Knoxville, is the shipping point for the rich copper mines of East Tennessee. *Athens*, capital of McMinn county, 154 miles E.S.E. of Nashville. *Greenville*, capital of Green county, is 66 miles E. by N. from Knoxville. *Columbia*, the capital of Maury county, is 41 miles S. by W. from Nashville, on the Tennessee and Alabama Railroad. It is the seat of Jackson College, founded in 1833, and also three female seminaries. The town is in a beautiful country, is noted for its educational institutions, has a fine trade, and was the residence of President Polk, previous to his election in 1844. *Galatin*, county seat of Sumner, is 25 miles N.W. of Nashville. *Clarksville* is on the Cumberland, at the mouth of Red River, about 50 miles N.W. of Nashville: it is an important point for the manufacturing and shipping of tobacco, and a very flourishing business town. *Jackson*, capital of Madison county, in West Tennessee, is on the line of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad.

The COPPER MINES of East Tennessee are proving a most important element in the industry of the country. The famous *Ducktown mines* are in Polk county, forty miles easterly from the little thriving town of Cleveland, on the East Tennessee and Georgia Railroad, which is their point of shipment. The first mine was discovered in 1850, and, for want of roads, it was a long time before any ore could be sent away. The earlier shipments had to be made to Dalton, Georgia, a distance of seventy-four miles. Notwithstanding these inconveniences, there had been 14,291 tons of copper ore shipped from these mines before the close of 1855, which was sold for more than a million of dollars. In September of 1855, seven of the mines produced ore to the value of \$80,000, or at the rate of nearly a million of dollars per annum. The discovery of these mines led to great excitement and large expectations when it was known that the supply of copper throughout the world was not equal to the demand. Lands which were nearly quite worthless before the veins were discovered rose to a great value. In one instance, a tract of one hundred acres with a mine fully developed, sold for \$460,000. A late visitor at Ducktown thus gives us his experience there:

The Ducktown copper mines have been opened in some low ranges of hills which seem to form the highest point in a broad, rolling plain, surrounded on all sides, apparently, by lofty mountains, so distant as to be clothed with blue, and lifting many a bold peak far into the sky. The scene is one of great beauty, when seen as we first beheld it, at sunset, when the western crests of the far-away hills seemed to blaze in the sunbeams, while their bases lay in a shadow of the deepest blue, deepening every moment into the evening gloom, and the eastern ridges were yet purple with the fading glory of the day. Woodlands thinned by the ax, and spoiled of half their beauty, were near at hand, but at a little distance the dark, dense forest seemed to begin and stretch away almost unbroken to the distant mountains. The few clearings scarcely broke the continuity of the woods, and man seemed not much to have marred the beauty of the works of God. Before us, as we approached Ducktown, tall columns of smoke, from the furnaces, marked its situation, and this smoke was already settling into and filling to the brim the eastern valley.

It presents, however, the usual aspect of a mining village, and the buildings, perhaps, are all that circumstances require. The people had comfortable, though not elegant dwellings, plenty of proper food, schools for their children, and preaching on the Sabbath. There is here a population of about five thousand, many of whom are English and Scotch, with a few Irish and Welsh. The mines are mostly controlled by English capitalists, and no slaves are employed in them. There is, indeed, no mechanical work in which slaves as a body can be profitably used.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES, MISCELLANIES, ETC.

Gen. James Robertson, one of the principal fathers of Tennessee, was a native of North Carolina, the patriarch of Watauga, and the founder of the Cumberland settlements. He emigrated to Watauga in 1769. "To his wife he was indebted for a knowledge of the alphabet, and for instruction how to read and write. To his Creator he was indebted for rich mental endowments—to himself for mental improvement. To his God he was indebted for that firmness and indomitable courage which the circumstances that surrounded him called so constantly into exercise. A detail of his acts in behalf of his country, and an enumeration of his sufferings by personal exposure in the wilderness, in the field of battle, in the besieged fort and the assaulted station, in losses of relatives and of private property, would fill a volume. Previous to and at the time of his death, Gen. Robertson was the United States agent at the Chickasaw nation." He continued to the close of his useful life an active friend to his country, and by his services to the western settlements, in peace and in war, he has caused his name to be remembered with gratitude and veneration. He died at the Chickasaw agency, Sept. 1, 1814.

John Sevier, the first governor of Tennessee, the compatriot and colleague of Gen. James Robertson, was born in Shenandoah county, Va., in 1744. His ancestors were French Huguenots; the family name in France is Xavier. The Earl of Dunmore, then governor of Virginia, appointed young Sevier a captain in the military service of the colony. Not long after the family emigrated to the west to the Holston, and finally to the Watauga. Inheriting the sprightliness, gallantry and generosity of his French ancestry, Capt. Sevier soon became a favorite in the wilds of Watauga. In the revolution, when the British troops were sweeping the friends of liberty before them in the southern states, Sevier and his companions in arms hastened to the rescue. His services in the important conflict at King's Mountain are well known. He was the first to introduce the Indian war-whoop among the soldiery. The British prisoners at King's Mountain said they could stand the fighting, but the hallooing confused them, making them believe that "the mountains had regiments instead of companies." Sevier was the idol of his soldiers, who were generally his neighbors and the members of his own family. Often no public provision was made for their pay and equipments. These were furnished by himself, he being at once commander, commissariat and paymaster. On the formation of the new "State of Franklin," Sevier was chosen governor. In the trouble and con-

fusion which followed that event, he was seized by an armed posse, and conveyed to Morgantown on a charge of treason against the state of North Carolina. At the time of his trial he was rescued by his friends, and his return was everywhere welcomed with joy. He was afterward restored to favor, and was elected the first member of congress from the great valley of the Mississippi. In 1815, he was appointed commissioner by President Monroe to run the boundary of territory ceded for the Creeks to the United States. He left his home, near Knoxville, in June, for that purpose, and died of a fever September 24th, in the 71st year of his age. He was buried, with the honors of war, on the east bank of the Tallapoosa, near Fort Decatur, in Alabama.

William Blount, the first governor of the "Territory south-west of the River Ohio," was a native of North Carolina, and his relatives were distinguished during the revolutionary period. He received the appointment of governor under the administration of Washington in 1790. He was remarkable for his *arbitrariness, hospitality and commanding presence*. At first he made his residence in the fork of Holston and Watauga Rivers, at the house of Wm. Cobb, where he held his court in the ancient woods of Sullivan. After he removed to Knoxville, the friendly Indian chiefs paid frequent visits to the new capital. Mrs. Blount, the wife of the governor, an accomplished lady, became much interested in them, and by her address and persuasion induced them to restrain their young warriors from aggression upon the frontier people. Grainger county and Fort Grainger, at the mouth of the Tennessee, were named from the maiden name of Mrs. Blount. Governor Blount was cut off in the prime of life, and his remains were interred in the burying ground of the First Presbyterian Church, having a slab with the simple inscription: "William Blount, died March 21, 1800, aged 53 years."

Andrew Jackson. "Ask nothing but what is right—submit to nothing wrong," was Andrew Jackson's great political maxim, and it was an abiding principle in his character from his earliest youth until the close of his life. That noble principle was the key to his great success in whatever he undertook, and is worthy of

Monmouth Decr 16th 1828
Andrew Jackson

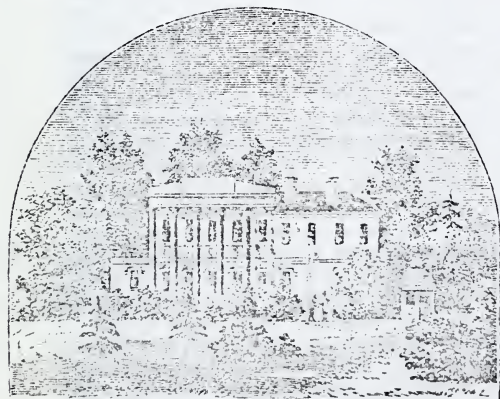
adoption by every young man when he sets out upon the perilous voyage of active life. Jackson's parents were from the north of Ireland, and were among the early Scotch-Irish settlers in the upper part of South Carolina, in the vicinity of Waxhaw creek. Jackson's father lived north of the dividing line between North and South Carolina, in Mecklenburg county, and there Andrew was born on the 15th of March, 1797. His father died five days afterward, and a month later his mother took up her abode in South Carolina, near the meeting-house of the Waxhaw settlement. He received a fair education, but his studies were interrupted by the tumults of the on-coming revolution, and soon after the fall of Charleston the Waxhaw settlement became a terrible scene of blood, in the massacre of Buford's regiment by the fiery Tarleton. Every element of the lion in young Jackson's nature was aroused by this event, and, boy as he was, not yet fourteen years of age, he joined the patriot army and went to the field. One of his brothers was killed at Stono, and himself and another brother were made captives in 1781. The widow was soon bereaved of all her family but Andrew, and after making a journey of mercy to Charleston, to relieve sick prisoners, she fell by the wayside, and the place of her sepulcher is not known unto this day. Left alone at a critical period of life, with some property at his disposal, young Jackson commenced a career that promised certain destruction. He suddenly reformed, studied law, and was licensed to practice in 1786. He was soon afterward appointed solicitor of the western district of Tennessee, and journeying over the mountains, he commenced,

in that then wilderness, that remarkable career as attorney, judge, legislator and military commander, which on contemplation assumes the features of the wildest romance, viewed from any point of appreciation. His lonely journeyings, his collisions with the Indians, his difficulties with gamblers and fraudulent creditors and land speculators, and his wonderful personal triumphs in hours of greatest danger, make the record of his life one of rare interest and instruction.

In 1790, Jackson made his residence at Nashville, and there he married an accomplished woman, who had been divorced from her husband. In 1795, he assisted in forming a state constitution for Tennessee, and was elected the first representative in congress of the new state. In the autumn of 1797, he took a seat in the United States senate, to which he had been chosen, and was a conspicuous supporter of the democratic party. He did not remain long at Washington. Soon after leaving the senate, he was appointed judge of the supreme court of his state. He resigned that office in 1804, and retired to his beautiful estate near Nashville. There he was visited by Aaron Burr, in 1805, and entered warmly into his schemes for invading Mexico. When Burr's intentions were suspected, Jackson refused further intercourse with him until he should prove the purity of his intentions. For many years Jackson was chief military commander in his section, and when war against Great Britain was proclaimed in 1812, he longed for employment in the field. He was called to duty in 1813. Early the following year he was made a major-general, and from that time until his great victory at New Orleans, on the 8th of January, 1815, his name was identified with every military movement in the south, whether against the hostile Indians, Britons or Spaniards. In 1818, he engaged successfully in a campaign against the Seminoles and other southern Indians, and, at the same time, he taught the Spanish authorities in Florida some useful lessons, and hastened the cession of that territory to the United States.

In 1821, President Monroe appointed General Jackson governor of Florida, and

in 1823 he offered him the station of resident minister in Mexico. He declined the honor, but accepted a seat in the United States senate, to which the legislature of Tennessee had elected him. He was one of the four candidates for president of the United States in 1824, but was unsuccessful. He was elevated to that exalted station in 1828, by a large majority, and was re-elected in 1832. His administration of eight years was marked by great energy, and never were the affairs of the Republic, in its domestic and foreign relations, more prosperous than at the close of his term of office. In the



THE HERMITAGE.

spring of 1837, he retired from public life forever, and sought repose after a long and laborious career, devoted to the service of his country. He lived quietly at his residence near Nashville, called the Hermitage, until on a calm Sunday, the 8th of June, 1845, his spirit went home. He was then a little more than seventy-eight years of age. The memory of that great and good man is revered by his countrymen, next to that of Washington, and to him has been awarded the first equestrian statue in bronze ever erected in this country. It is colossal, and occupies a conspicuous place in President's Square, Washington City, where it was reared in 1852.*

Parton, in his three volume biography of Jackson, has given some facts

* Lossing's Eminent Americans.

upon his boyhood days, that interesting era in the history of great men. These we find grouped to our hand by a reviewer, and so present them, with his dove-tailing paragraphs:

His parents were Scotch Irish emigrants from Carrackfergus, of the humblest condition in life, and to add to the struggles of the family with adversity, his father died just after the birth of his son. His mother was obliged to find a home, as housekeeper and poor relation, in the family of a brother-in-law, and here young Andrew passed the first ten or twelve years of his life. He soon acquired the reputation of being the most mischievous boy in the neighborhood, always full of pranks and getting into trouble. His school-days were not of the most promising character; nor, judging from Mr. Parton's lively description, was his youthful brain in danger of being turned by any superfluity of book-learning.

'In due time the boy was sent to an 'old-field school,' an institution not much unlike the road-side schools in Ireland of which we read. The northern reader is, perhaps, not aware that an 'old-field' is not a field at all, but a pine forest. When crop after crop of cotton, without rotation, has exhausted the soil, the fences are taken away, the land lies waste, the young pines at once spring up, and soon cover the whole field with a thick growth of wood. In one of these old fields, the rudest possible shanty of a log house is erected, with a fire-place that extends from side to side, and occupies a third of the interior. In winter, the interstices of the log walls are filled up with clay; which the restless fingers of the boys make haste to remove in time to admit the first warm airs of spring. An itinerant schoolmaster presents himself in a neighborhood; the responsible farmers pledge him a certain number of pupils, and an old-field school is established for the season. Such schools, called by the same name, exist to this day in the Carolinas, differing little from those which Andrew Jackson attended in his childhood. Reading, writing and arithmetic were all the branches taught in the early day. Among a crowd of urchins seated on the slab benches of a school like this, fancy a tall, slender boy, with bright blue eyes, a freckled face, an abundance of long, sandy hair, and clad in coarse, copperas-colored cloth, with bare feet dangling and kicking, and you have in your mind's eye a picture of Andy as he appeared in his old-field school days in the Waxhaw settlement.'

His mother seems to have had more ambitious views for her son, and hoped that by being enabled to obtain for him a liberal education she would have the pleasure to see him 'wag his pow in a pulpit' as a clergyman of the Presbyterian Church. He was not destined, however, to 'beat the drum ecclesiastic,' though if his good mother's wishes could have been realized, he would doubtless have proved a valiant soldier of the 'church militant,' and dealt thick and heavy blows on the sinner and heretic with as much unction as he subsequently discomfited the invaders of his country at New Orleans. He was a fighter from his earliest boyhood. Not a drop of tame blood ran in his veins.

'Andy was a wild, frolicsome, willful, mischievous, daring, reckless boy; generous to a friend, but never content to submit to a stronger enemy. He was passionately fond of those sports which are mimic battles—above all, wrestling. Being a slender boy, more active than strong, he was often thrown.

'I could throw him three times out of four,' an old schoolmate used to say, 'but he would never *stay* thrown. He was dead game, even then, and never would give up.'

He was exceedingly fond of running foot races, of leaping the bar, and jumping, and in such sports he was excelled by no one of his years. To younger boys, who never questioned his mastery, he was a generous protector; there was nothing he would not do to defend them. His equals and superiors found him self-willed, somewhat overbearing, easily offended, *very* irascible, and, upon the whole, difficult to get along with.' One of them said, many years after, in the heat of controversy, that of all the boys he had ever known, Andrew Jackson was the only bully who was not also a coward.

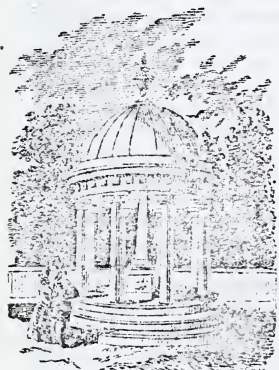
But the boy, it appears, had a special cause of irritation in a disgraceful disease, name unknown, which induces a habit of—not to put too fine a point on it—'slobbering.' Woe to any boy who presumed to jest at this misfortune! Andy was

upon him incontinently, and there was either a fight or a drubbing. There is a story, too, of some boys secretly loading a gun to the muzzle, and giving it to young Jackson to fire off, that they might have the pleasure of seeing it 'kick' him over. They *had* that pleasure. Springing up from the ground, the boy, in a frenzy of passion, exclaimed: 'By —, if one of you laughs I'll kill him!'

He soon had an opportunity for pursuing higher game. He was nine years old when the declaration of independence was signed. By the time the war approached the obscure settlement in the region of the Catawba, where he was born, he was a little more than thirteen. A change now came over his rustic life. The school-house was closed, the peaceful labors of the people interrupted. His elder brother Hugh had already mounted his horse and ridden southward to meet the bloody strife. 'It was on the 29th of May, 1780, that Tarleton, with three hundred horsemen, surprised a detachment of militia in the Waxhaw settlement, and killed one hundred and thirteen of them, and wounded a hundred and fifty. The wounded; abandoned to the care of the settlers, were quartered in the houses of the vicinity, the old log Waxhaw meeting-house itself being converted into a hospital for the most desperate cases. Mrs. Jackson was one of the kind women who ministered to the wounded soldiers in the church, and under that roof her boys first saw what war was. The men were dreadfully mangled. Some had received as many as

thirteen wounds, and none less than three. For many days Andrew and his brother assisted their mother in waiting upon the sick men; Andrew, more in rage than pity, though pitiful by nature, burning to avenge their wounds and his brother's death.

Tarleton's massacre at the Waxhaw settlement kindled the flames of war in all that region of the Carolinas. Andrew, with his brother Robert, was present at Sumpter's attack on the British post at Hanging Rock, where he might have received his first lesson in the art of war. Soon after he passed his fourteenth birthday there ensued a fierce, intestine warfare in the vicinity of his home—a war of whig and tory, neighbor against neighbor, brother against brother, and even father against son. Among other instances of the madness that prevailed, a case is related of a whig, who, having found a friend murdered and mutilated, devoted himself to the slaying of tories. He hunted and lay in wait for them, and before the war ended had killed twenty, and then, recovering from



TOMB OF JACKSON

that insanity, lived the rest of his days a conscience-stricken wretch. Andrew and his brother soon began to take a personal share in the eventful conflict. Without enlisting in any regular corps, they plunged into the fight on their own hook, joining small parties that went out on single enterprises of retaliation, mounted on their own horses, and carrying their own weapons. Mr. Parton gives a description of one of his adventures in this line which illustrates both the time and the boy:

'In that fierce, Scotch-Indian warfare, the absence of a father from home was often a better protection to his family than his presence, because his presence invited attack. The main object of both parties was to kill the fighting men, and to avenge the slaying of partisans. The house of the quiet hero Hicks, for example, was safe until it was noised about among the tories that Hicks was at home. And thus it came to pass, that when a whig soldier of note desired to spend a night with his family, his neighbors were accustomed to turn out and serve as a guard to his house while he slept. Behold Robert and Andrew Jackson, with six others, thus employed one night in the spring of 1781, at the domicile of a neighbor, Capt. Sands. The guard on this occasion was more a friendly tribute to an active partisan than a service considered necessary to his safety. In short, the night was not far advanced before the whole party were snugly housed and stretched upon the floor, all sound asleep except one, a British deserter, who was restless, and dozed at intervals.

Danger was near. A band of tories, bent on taking the life of Capt. Sands, ap

proached the house in two divisions, one party moving toward the front door, the other toward the back. The wakeful soldier, hearing a suspicious noise, rose, went out of doors to learn its cause, and saw the foe stealthily nearing the house. He ran in in terror, and, seizing Andrew Jackson, who lay next the door, by the hair, exclaimed: 'The tories are upon us!'

Andrew sprang up and ran out. Seeing a body of men in the distance, he placed the end of his gun in the low fork of a tree near the door and hailed them. No reply. He hailed them a second time. No reply. They quickened their pace, and had come within a few rods of the door. By this time, too, the guard in the house had been roused, and were gathered in a group behind the boy. Andrew discharged his musket, upon which the tories fired a volley, which killed the hapless deserter who had given the alarm. The other party of tories, who were approaching the house from the other side, hearing this discharge, and the rush of bullets above their heads, supposed that the firing proceeded from a party that had issued from the house. They now fired a volley, which sent a shower of balls whistling about the heads of their friends on the other side. Both parties hesitated and then halted. Andrew having thus, by his single discharge, puzzled and stopped the enemy, retired to the house, where he and his comrades kept up a brisk fire from the windows. One of the guard fell mortally wounded by his side, and another received a wound less severe. In the midst of this singular contest, a bugle was heard, some distance off, sounding the cavalry charge, whereupon the tories, concluding that they had come upon an ambush of whigs, and were about to be assailed by horse and foot, fled to where they had left their horses, mounted, dashed pell-mell into the woods, and were seen no more. It appeared afterward that the bugle charge was sounded by a neighbor, who, judging from the noise of musketry that Captain Sands was attacked, and having not a man with him in his house, gave the blast upon the trumpet, thinking that even a trick so stale, aided by the darkness of the night, might have some effect in alarming the assailants.'

After peace was restored to his neighborhood, young Jackson embraced every opportunity to engage in a 'free fight,' beside sharing largely in the fun and frolic, which were almost as congenial to his disposition as the drubbing of an adversary. Several Charleston families of wealth and distinction were waiting in the settlement for the evacuation of their city. With the young men whose acquaintance he thus made, Andrew led a life in the summer and autumn of 1782 that was more merry than wise. He now began to betray that taste for horse-flesh which became such a decided passion in after life. He ran races and rode races, gambled a little, drank a little, indulged in a cock-fight occasionally, and presented a glorious specimen of the young America at that day. He seems to have had but a faint love for his Carolina relations, and was probably regarded as the scapegrace of the family.

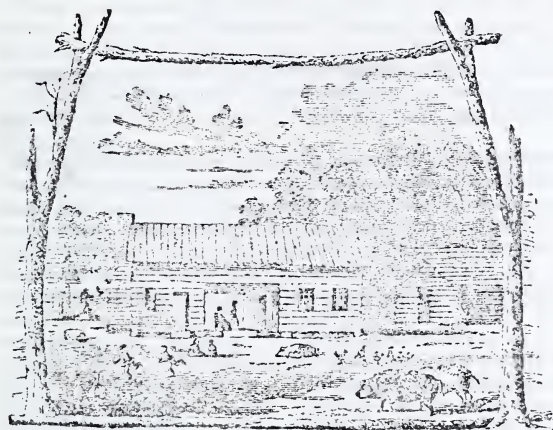
It is credibly related that his first attempt at earning a living for himself was in the capacity of a country schoolmaster, but after trying his hand in this uncongenial employment for a short time he resolved to study law. Gathering together his scanty earnings, he mounts his horse, sets his face to the northward in quest of a master with whom to pursue his law studies, and finally enters an office in Salisbury, N. C., at the age of eighteen. Of his residence in that pleasant old town, Mr. Parton has succeeded in bagging some characteristic if not altogether edifying reminiscences:

'Salisbury teems with traditions respecting the residence there of Andrew Jackson as a student of law. Their general tenor may be expressed in the language of the first old resident of the town, to whom I applied for information: 'Andrew Jackson was the most roaring, rollicking, game-cocking, horse-racing, card-playing, mischievous fellow that ever lived in Salisbury.' Add to this such expressions as these: 'He did not trouble the law books much,' 'he was more in the stable than in the office,' 'he was the head of all the rowdies hereabouts.' That is the substance of what the Salisbury of 1859 has to say of the Andrew Jackson of 1785.

Nothing is more likely than that he *was* a roaring, rollicking fellow, overflowing with life and spirits, and rejoicing to engage in all the fun that was going, but I do not believe that he neglected his duties at the office to the extent to which Salisbury says he did. There are good reasons for doubting it. At no part of Jackson's career, when we can get a *look* at him through a pair of trustworthy eyes, do

we find him trifling with life. We find him often wrong, but always earnest. He never so much as raised a field of cotton which he did not have done in the best manner known to him. It was not in the nature of this young man to take a great deal of trouble to get a chance to study law, and then entirely to throw away that chance. Of course he never became, in any proper sense of the word, a *lawyer*, but that he was not diligent and eager in picking up the legal knowledge necessary for practice at that day, will become less credible to the reader the more he knows of him. Once, in the White House, forty-five years after this period, when some one from Salisbury reminded him of his residence in that town, he said, with a smile, and a look of retrospection on his aged face, "Yes, I lived at old Salisbury. I was but a raw lad then, *but I did my best.*"

Annexed is a view of the residence of the celebrated Col. David Crockett, at the time he was a member of congress. It is in Gibson county, in the



DAVID CROCKETT'S CABIN.

[Drawn by Henry Howe, Nov., 1859.]

north-western corner of Tennessee, about 4 miles easterly from Rutherford's Station, on the Mobile and Ohio Railroad. It is the present residence of Moses F. Whitehurst, and stands in the forks of Obiou River, a stream famous in the history of Crockett's hunting adventures. The house is of hewn logs: originally it had "cat and clay" chimneys. These have given place to stone, and the logs are now weatherboarded. It is about 40 feet long

and 14 wide, and is what is termed "*a double cabin*"—a favorite kind of backwoods structure in the south-west. The open space between the different parts of the cabin, in the heats of summer, is a common place for the families to partake of their meals, for the females to sew, and for general social intercourse. Independence, buoyant health, solid, substantial comfort, and general freedom from oppressive care, may be said to be the general condition of Americans who find their homes in double cabins.

The country in the vicinity of Crockett's cabin is yet in a somewhat wilderness condition, though it is now rapidly improving under the impetus given, of late years, to the cotton growing region. When in the county to make a sketch of the place, for this work, we became acquainted with several gray-headed men, who evidently took pride in stating they had "voted for Crockett." They described him as a man tall in stature, rising six feet, of sinewy frame, independent in manner, and an excellent story-teller. In his last canvass for congress he was beaten, and therefore emigrated to Texas. They related many anecdotes of his goodness of heart and generosity—among them this: In the autumn of 1838, a general migration of squirrels from the north crossed that section of country, devouring all the corn in their path, so that a famine threatened the inhabitants. Crockett, upon this,

went to the Wabash country, bought a flat-boat loaded it with corn, and floating down the Ohio into the Mississippi, and thence to the mouth of the Obion, a distance of several hundred miles, poled it up that stream 130 miles further by its various windings, to the forks of the Obion, and there distributed it among his suffering neighbors. His first question, when a man came to buy, was, "Have you got money to pay for it?" If the reply was, "Yes," Crockett would rejoin, "then you can't have a kernel. I brought it here to sell to those who have no money." Another question was, "how many have you in your family?" This ascertained, he would sell none more than their share, taking from all due bills, and refusing credit to none, however untrustworthy their reputation, or great their poverty. The following sketch is from Lossing's American Biography:

"*'Be sure you are right, then go ahead,'* is a wise maxim attributed to one whose life was a continual illustration of the sentiment. Every body has heard of 'Davy Crockett,' the immortal backwoodsman of Tennessee—the 'crack shot' of the wilderness—the eccentric but honest member of congress—the 'hero of the Alamo'—yet few knew his origin, his early struggles, and the general current of his life. History has but few words concerning him, but tradition is garrulous over his many deeds.

David Crockett was born at the mouth of the Limestone River, Greene county, East Tennessee, on the 17th of August, 1786. His father was of Scotch-Irish descent, and took a prominent part in the War for Independence. It was all a wilderness around David's birth-place, and his soul communed with nature in its unbroken wildness, from the beginning. He grew to young manhood, without any education from books other than he received in his own rude home. When only seven years of age, David's father was stripped of most of his little property, by fire. He opened a tavern in Jefferson county, where David was his main 'help' until the age of twelve years. Then he was hired to a Dutch cattle-trader, who collected herds in Tennessee and Kentucky, and drove them to the eastern markets. This vagrant life, full of incident and adventure, suited young Crockett, but becoming dissatisfied with his employer, he deserted him, and made his way back to his father's home. After tarrying a year, he ran away, joined another cattle merchant, and at the end of the journey, in Virginia, he was dismissed with precisely four dollars in his pocket. For three years he was 'knocking about,' as he expressed it, and then he sought his father's home again. He now enjoyed the advantages of a school for a few weeks; and, finally, after several unsuccessful love adventures, he married an excellent girl, and became a father in 1810, when 24 years of age. He settled on the banks of Elk River, and was pursuing the quiet avocation of a farmer in summer, and the more stirring one of hunter in the autumn, when war was commenced with Great Britain, in 1812. Crockett was one of the first to respond to Gen. Jackson's call for volunteers, and under that brave leader he was engaged in several skirmishes and battles. He received the commission of colonel at the close of the war, as a testimonial of his worth. His wife had died while he was in the army, and several small children were left to his care. The widow of a deceased friend soon came to his aid, and in this second wife he found an excellent guardian for his children. Soon after his marriage, he removed to Laurens county, where he was made justice of the peace, and was chosen to represent the district in the state legislature. Generous, full of fun, possessing great shrewdness, and 'honest to a fault,' Crockett became very popular in the legislature and among his constituents. In the course of a few years he removed to Western Tennessee, where he became a famous hunter. With the rough backwoodsmen there he was a man after their own hearts, and he was elected to a seat in congress, in 1828, and again in 1830. He and the opposing candidate canvassed their district together, and made stump speeches. Crockett's opponent had written his speech, and delivered the same one at different places. David was always original, and he readily yielded to his friend's request to speak first. At a point where both wished to make a good impression, Crockett desired to speak first. His opponent could not refuse; but, to his dismay, he heard David repeat his own speech. The colo-

nel had heard it so often that it was fixed in his memory. The other candidate was *speechless*, and lost his election. When the Americans in Texas commenced their war for independence, toward the close of 1835, Crockett hastened thither to help them, and at the storming of the Alamo, at San Antonio de Bexar, on the 6th of March, 1836, that eccentric hero was killed. He was afterward found dead, surrounded by a pile of the enemy, who had fallen beneath his powerful arm. He was then fifty years of age."

Hugh Lawson White, an eminent statesman and jurist, was born in North Carolina, in 1773, and when 13 years of age emigrated with his father's family to Knox county Tennessee. He was educated to the law in Pennsylvania, and in 1796, began the practice at Knoxville. Though his education was limited, he was clear headed, logical and self-relying, and attained distinction throughout the entire south-west, where he was "familiarily compared to Aristides, and reverently regarded as the Cato of the republic." He served in many offices of trust, as U. S.



Brainerd, the Ancient Missionary Station among the Cherokees.

The engraving shows the Mission Church, Store House, and other buildings connected with the Mission as they appeared about the year 1821. The grave of Dr. Worcester* is seen on the left, at the spot where two persons are standing.

district attorney, judge of the supreme court of Tennessee, state senator, president of the state bank, etc. He was appointed commissioner by President Monroe to adjust claims of our citizens against Spain. In 1825, 1831, and 1837, he was successively elected to the senate of the United States, where he served with signal ability. At the election for vice president of the United States, in 1836, he received all the votes of Georgia and Tennessee. In 1839, having received instructions from the legislature of Tennessee to vote in the senate contrary to his own judgment, he resigned his seat in that body, which he had held sixteen years. He died at his residence in Knoxville, April 10, 1840, in the 68th year of his age.

THE CHEROKEE MISSION.

The first mission of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions among the Cherokees, was commenced in 1817 at Brainerd, a spot within the limits of Tennessee, on the western side of the *Chickamauga* Creek, which is navigable to Brainerd, being about 15 miles from its confluence with the Tennessee. It was, at that time, nearly equi-distant from the eastern and western extremities of the Cherokee country, and perhaps 25 or 30 miles from the northern limit, which was the mouth of Hiawasee. A

* Rev. Dr. Worcester, of Massachusetts, an active member of the American Board, died in his visit to the Cherokees, at Brainerd, June 7, 1821, and was interred on the Mission premises. His remains were taken up several years since, and carried to Massachusetts, by his son, a clergyman of that state. The mission grounds are now owned by A. E. Blunt, Esq., who was formerly connected with the mission as a farmer, mechanic and teacher. The wife and two children of Mr. Blunt were buried by the side of Dr. Worcester, with others of the mission family. The old Mission Church is still standing.

church was organized in Sept. 1817, and Catherine was the first fruit of missionary labor. This place was visited by President Monroe, in May, 1819 on his grand tour through the United States.

The missions continued to flourish: 8 churches, or stations, were established, and the mass of the people became civilized, and, externally, embraced the Christian religion. In 1828 and 1829, the state of Georgia, repudiating the independent government which the Cherokees attempted to establish among themselves, extended her laws over them, and forbade the missionaries of the board to reside among them. Mr. Worcester and Dr. Butler, for violating this law, were imprisoned in the Georgia penitentiary. The case was brought before the supreme court of the United States, in 1832, which ordered their release. The bill for the removal of the Indians west of the Mississippi, passed congress in 1830. On Sunday, the 19th of Aug., 1835, the church at Brainerd gathered, for the last time in that place, around the sacramental table. In 1836, some of the principal chiefs negotiated a treaty at New Echota, for the sale of all their lands east of the Mississippi, for five millions of dollars. In 1838, the whole nation, 16,000 in number, were on their march for the west, in fourteen companies. Several missionaries accompanied them on their way. Their journey of 600 or 700 miles, was performed in four or five months. On the 22d of June, 1839, *Major Ridge*, his son, *John Ridge*, and *Elias Boudinot*, Cherokee chiefs, were assassinated by their countrymen, for the part they took in selling the lands of the nation.

THE JERKS.

About the beginning of the present century, the religious meetings of the west were attended by singular mental and physical phenomena, resembling, in some of their phases, the mesmeric phenomena of our time. These were comprised under the general name of "*the Jerks*." The first recorded instance was at a sacrament in East Tennessee, when several hundred of both sexes were seized with this strange and involuntary contortion. A clerical writer, Rev. Barton W. Stone, has, in his biography, left an account of what he personally witnessed of these strange phenomena, which we here transcribe:

The bodily agitations or exercises attending the excitement in the beginning of this century were various, and called by various names, as the falling exercise, the jerks, the dancing exercise, the barking exercise, the laughing and singing exercises, and so on. The falling exercise was very common among all classes, the saints and sinners of every age and grade, from the philosopher to the clown. The subject of this exercise would generally, with a piercing scream, fall like a log on the floor or earth, and appear as dead. Of thousands of similar cases, I will mention one. At a meeting, two gay young ladies, sisters, were standing together, attending the exercises and preaching at the same time, when instantly they both fell with a shriek of distress, and lay for more than an hour apparently in a lifeless state. Their mother, a pious Baptist, was in great distress, fearing they would not revive. At length they began to exhibit signs of life, by crying fervently for mercy, and then relapsed into the same death-like state, with an awful gloom on their countenances; after a while, the gloom on the face of one was succeeded by a heavenly smile, and she cried out, 'Precious Jesus!' and spoke of the glory of the gospel to the surrounding crowd in language almost superhuman, and exhorted all to repentance. In a little while after, the other sister was similarly exercised. From that time they became remarkably pious members of the church.

I have seen very many pious persons fall in the same way, from a sense of the danger of their unconverted children, brothers, or sisters, or from a sense of the danger of their neighbors in a sinful world. I have heard them agonizing in tears,

and strongly crying for mercy to be shown to sinners, and speaking like angels all around.

The jerks can not be so easily described. Sometimes the subject of the jerks would be affected in some one member of the body, and sometimes in the whole system. When the head alone was affected, it would be jerked backward and forward, or from side to side, so quickly that the features of the face could not be distinguished. When the whole system was affected, I have seen the person stand in one place, and jerk backward and forward in quick succession, the head nearly touching the floor behind and before. All classes, saints and sinners, the strong as well as the weak, were thus affected. I have inquired of those thus affected if they could not account for it, but some have told me that those were among the happiest seasons of their lives. I have seen some wicked persons thus affected, and all the time cursing the jerks, while they were thrown to the earth with violence. Though so awful to behold, I do not remember that any one of the thousands I have seen thus affected, ever sustained any injury in body. This was as strange as the exercise itself.

The dancing exercise generally began with the jerks, and was peculiar to professors of religion. The subject, after jerking awhile, began to dance, and then the jerks would cease. Such dancing was indeed heavenly to the spectators. There was nothing in it like levity, nor calculated to excite levity in the beholders. The smile of Heaven shone on the countenance of the subject, and assimilated to angels appeared the whole person. Sometimes the motion was quick, and sometimes slow. Thus they continued to move forward and backward in the same track or alley till nature seemed exhausted; and they would fall prostrate on the floor or earth, unless caught by those standing by. While thus exercised, I have heard their solemn praises and prayers ascend to God.

The barking exercise, as opposers contemptuously called it, was nothing but the jerks. A person affected with the jerks, especially in his head, would often make a grunt or a bark, from the suddenness of the jerk. This name of barking seems to have had its origin from an old Presbyterian preacher of East Tennessee. He had gone into the woods for private devotion, and was seized with the jerks. Standing near a sapling, he caught hold of it to prevent his falling, and, as his head jerked back, he uttered a grunt, or a kind of noise similar to a bark, his face being turned upward. Some wag discovered him in this position, and reported that he had found the old preacher barking up a tree.

The laughing exercise was frequent—confined solely to the religious. It was a loud, hearty laughter, but it excited laughter in none that heard it. The subject appeared rapturously solemn, and his laughter excited solemnity in saints and sinners: it was truly indescribable!

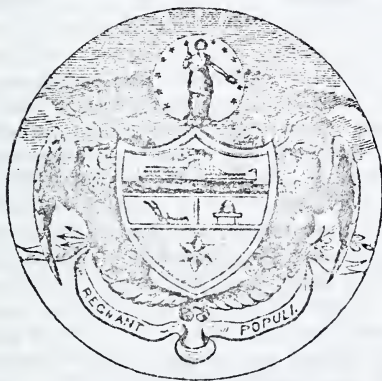
The running exercise was nothing more than that persons feeling something of these bodily agitations, through fear, attempted to run away and thus escape from them; but it commonly happened that they ran not far before they fell, where they became so agitated they could not proceed any farther.

I knew a young physician, of a celebrated family, who came some distance to a big meeting, to see the strange things he had heard of. He and a young lady had sportively agreed to watch over and take care of each other if either should fall. At length, the physician felt something very uncommon, and started from the congregation to run into the woods. He was discovered running as for life, but did not proceed far until he fell down, and there lay until he submitted to the Lord, and afterward became a zealous member of the Church. Such cases were common.

The singing exercise is more unaccountable than any thing else I ever saw. The subject, in a very happy state of mind, would sing most melodiously, not from the mouth or nose, but entirely in the breast, the sounds issuing thence. Such noise silenced everything, and attracted the attention of all. It was most heavenly; none could ever be tired of hearing it.

ARKANSAS.

The first European who traversed the territory of Arkansas was De Soto, the celebrated Spanish adventurer, who after his wanderings east of the Mis-



ARMS OF ARKANSAS.

Motto—*Regit populi*—The people govern.

sissippi, about the 1st of May, 1541, reached the great river of the west, not far from the site of Memphis, Tenn., where he encamped and tarried for about twenty days, in order to construct boats to cross the river. On the opposite bank a great multitude of Indian warriors assembled, well armed, and with a fleet of canoes, to defend the passage. The morning after De Soto had encamped, some of the natives visited him. "Advancing without speaking a word, and turning their faces to the east, they made a profound genuflexion to the sun; then facing to the west, they made the same obeisance to the moon, and concluded with a similar, but less humble, reverence to De Soto." They informed him they came in the name of the chief of the province, to bid them welcome, and offer their friendship and services. When the time had arrived for crossing over, De Soto, about three hours before day, ordered the four boats he had built and launched to be manned, and four troopers of tried courage to go in each. As they came near the other shore, meeting with no opposition, the troopers dashed into the water, easily effected a landing, and made themselves masters of the pass. Two hours before the sun went down the whole army had passed over the Mississippi. "The river in this place," says the Portuguese historian, "was half a league from one shore to the other, so that a man standing still could scarce be discerned from the opposite bank. The stream was of great depth, very muddy, and was filled with trees and timber carried along by the rapidity of the current."

De Soto now pursued his way northward, and then turning westward again, they marched more than two hundred miles from the Mississippi to the high-

lands of White River. But still they found no gold (the object of their search), no gems, no cities: only bare prairies, tangled forests, and deep morasses. To the south they again toiled on, and passed the winter wandering upon the Washita. In the following spring (1542), De Soto, weary with hope long deferred, descended the river to its junction with Red River and the Mississippi. His men and horses wasted away, the Indians around him were hostile, and, his hopes being blasted, he sickened and died, and was buried in the Mississippi, "thus meeting, in all his travels, with nothing so remarkable as his burial place."

The territory of Arkansas appears to have been next visited by Father Marquette, and a few others, who came down from Canada in 1673. The French voyageurs, from the Ohio, passed down the river to the neighborhood of the "Arkamseas," or Arkansas, where they were kindly received. According to some accounts, the French had a settlement or military establishment at Arkansas Post, as early as 1685. It is stated, also, in 1748 (whether here or at the mouth of the Arkansas, does not distinctly appear), "the Chickasaws attacked the post, slew many, took thirteen prisoners, and drove the rest into the fort." At this time, "from the Arkansas to the Illinois, near five hundred leagues, there was not a settlement."

This state was originally included within the limits of Louisiana, from which, in conjunction with Missouri, it was set off, becoming a part of the latter, under the name of Missouri Territory. In 1819 Missouri was divided, and the southern portion became the Territory of Arkansas. The seat of government was originally located at Arkansas Post. Gen. James Miller, a distinguished officer, and a native of New Hampshire, was the first governor. He was succeeded by Gen. George Izard. The first territorial election took place in Nov., 1819. The first legislature met at Arkansas Post, Feb. 20, 1820. The members of the general assembly were as follows: Sylvanus Phillips, William O. Allen, and Wm. B. R. Horner, Arkansas county; Edward McDonald, Jo. Hardin, and Joab Hardin, Lawrence county; David Clark, Wm. Stephenson, and John English, Hempstead county; John McMurry, Radford Ellis, and Thos. H. Tindell, Pulaski county; Jacob Barkman and Thos. Fish, Clark county. Gen. Wm. Allen, who afterward lost his life in a duel, was appointed brigadier general of the Arkansas militia. James Woodson Bates was elected delegate, and Robert Crittenden, secretary. The seat of government was removed to Little Rock in 1820. In 1836, Arkansas was admitted as an independent state, constituting the twenty-sixth member of the American Union.

Arkansas is bounded N. by Missouri, on the E. by the Mississippi River, separating it from Mississippi and Tennessee, S. by Louisiana, and W. by the Indian Territory and Texas. It extends between 33° and 36° 30' N. Lat., and between 89° 30' and 94° 30' W. Long. It is 242 miles long from N. to S., and from 170 to 258 wide from E. to W., having an area of 52,198 square miles.

In the eastern part of the state, bordering on the Mississippi and the large rivers which empty into it, the country is low and swampy, with a heavy growth of timber, and is frequently overflowed. Toward the central part it is generally hilly and broken, though interspersed with numerous prairies. The western section is crossed by several mountainous ridges. The Ozark Mountains rise to an elevation of from 1,500 to 2,000 feet. The Washita Hills have also a considerable elevation.

"Arkansas gives indications of considerable affluence in mineral resources, which

are principally coal, iron, lead, zinc, manganese, gypsum, and salt. The coal field of Arkansas commences 40 miles above Little Rock, and extends on both sides of the river beyond the western boundary of the state. Cannel, anthracite and bituminous coal are found in the state. Gold is said to have been discovered in White county. Near the Hot Springs is a celebrated quarry of oil stone, superior to anything else of the kind in the known world: the quantity is inexhaustible: there are great varieties, exhibiting all degrees of fineness. According to a writer in *De Bow's Resources of the South and West*, there is manganese enough in Arkansas to supply the world; in zinc it excels every state except New Jersey; and has more gypsum than all the other states put together, while it is equally well supplied with marble and salt. The lead ore of this state is said to be particularly rich in silver."

"Among objects of interest to tourists, are the Hot Springs, about 60 miles S.W. of Little Rock. From a point or ridge of land, forming a steep bank from 150 to 200 feet high, projecting over Hot Spring Creek, an affluent of the Washita, more than 100 springs issue at different elevations, and at different temperatures, from 135 deg. to 160 deg. of Fahrenheit. A considerable portion of this bank consists of calcareous deposits, formed from the water as it is exposed to the air. These springs are visited annually by thousands of people. The waters are esteemed particularly beneficial to persons suffering from the chronic effects of mercury; also in rheumatism, stiffness of the joints, etc. Near the top of the bank above alluded to, there is a fine cold spring, so near to the warm springs that a person can put one hand into cold and the other into warm water at the same time. The creek below the springs is rendered warm enough to bathe in, even in the coldest season. Cane Hill, in Washington county, elevated about 1,000 feet, is flat or rolling on the top, with exactly the same growth of trees, etc. (including the grapevine, pawpaw and gum trees) as on the river bottoms. It was originally covered with cane, hence the name. It is four or five miles wide, and perhaps ten miles long, and densely populated. The mountains on the western border of the state, abound with picturesque and romantic scenery. There is in Pike county, on the Little Missouri River, a mountain of alabaster, said to be of the finest quality, and white as the driven snow. In the same county also there is a natural bridge, which is regarded as a great curiosity."

The state is traversed or washed by several of the largest rivers in America. The Mississippi laves its eastern front for more than 350 miles by its windings. The Arkansas, one of the largest tributaries of the Mississippi, traverses the whole breadth of the state, through its center by a very tortuous course, and is navigable for the greater part of the year far beyond its western limits. The Red River flows through the south-western corner of the state: the White River in the northern part of the state, and the Washita in the southern, are both important and navigable streams.

The soil is of every variety, from the most productive to that which is sterile. On the margins of rivers, it is exceedingly fertile, but back of this the land in many places is sterile, there being a scarcity of water. Cotton and Indian corn are staple productions, but the country is well calculated for raising cattle. Wild animals and fowls abound, such as buffaloes, deer, beaver, wild turkeys, geese, quails, etc. Within the last few years, the state has rapidly advanced in wealth and population, consequent upon the impetus given to the cultivation of cotton. Population, in 1850, 209,639, of whom 46,982 were slaves; in 1860, 435,427, including 111,104 slaves.

LITTLE ROCK, the capital and chief town in Arkansas, is situated on the Arkansas River, about 100 miles in a direct line from Napoleon, at the mouth of the river, but more than double that distance following the course of the stream: distant from New Orleans, by the rivers, 905 miles, and 1,086 W. from Washington. The town is built on a rocky bluff, some 40 or 50 feet

high. It contains the state capitol, the state penitentiary, U. S. arsenal, 5 or 6 churches, several literary institutions, manufacturing establishments, and 4,000 inhabitants.



Little Rock.

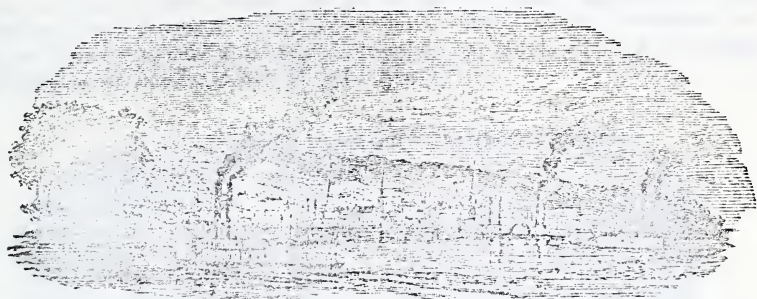
The view shows Little Rock, as it appears from the opposite bank of the Arkansas. The Steamboat and Ferry Landings are seen on the right. Part of the city buildings appear on the bluff, the Postoffice on the left, and the State House on the right.

The first rock which appears, in ascending the Arkansas from the Mississippi, is seen in the bank near the steamboat landing in this place. About one and a half miles above the town, on the opposite side of the stream, is a large perpendicular rock, some 300 feet high; this is called "*Big Rock*," while the other was known by the name of "*Little Rock*." Hence the present name of the city, which was originally called *Arkopolis*. The seat of government for Arkansas Territory was laid out here in 1820, at which time the steamboat *Comet* arrived, in eight days from New Orleans, the first steamboat that ascended the Arkansas. The river at Little Rock is about half a mile in width. In the summer months, when the water is at a low stage, only boats of a light draught can ascend as high as this point. During flood times the river has been known to rise twenty feet in twelve hours. In severe weather in winter, it is sometimes frozen over. Opposite the city the soil is very fertile, producing cotton from five to eight feet high.

Batesville, the county seat of Independence county, 95 miles northerly from Little Rock, is on the left bank of the White River, about 250 miles southwesterly from St. Louis, and 1,040 from Washington. It lies at the head of steam navigation, small steamboats ascending at nearly all seasons. The place contains about 1,000 inhabitants. In 1826, says Col. Noland, in his sketches of "*Early Times in Arkansas*," Batesville was the second town in importance in Arkansas. At

that time there were no towns or villages on White River from Batesville to its mouth.

HELENA, on the right bank of the Mississippi, is 100 miles from Little Rock, 100 from Napoleon, and 100 from Memphis. It has a large trade with the back country and the settlements on St. Francis



Helena.

River, from which it receives considerable cotton for shipment. There is a fine range of hills back of the landing, the first to be seen on the western bank of the Mississippi.



Napoleon.

The view shows the appearance of Napoleon as seen from the northern bank of the Arkansas, at the point where it enters the Mississippi. The U. S. Hospital and the mouth of the Arkansas are seen on the right; the Steamboat Landing and the Catholic Church on the left, the Ferry Landing and Court House in the central part.

NAPOLEON is situated on the southern side of Arkansas River, at its entrance into the Mississippi, about 100 miles in a direct line from Little Rock, by the river about 600 from New Orleans, 1,087 from St. Louis, and 1,583 from Cincinnati. It has 600 inhabitants.

Arkansas Post, the oldest settlement in Arkansas, is situated on the northern bank of the Arkansas river about 50 miles above its junction

the Mississippi. The French located themselves here as early as 1685. It was formerly a place of some importance, being the chief depot of the peltries of the country far around. There is now scarcely a single house remaining. "A happier people," says Col. Noland, "than those who once lived here were not to be found anywhere. Principally of French descent, they were fond of frolic; dancing, balls, and card playing were the order of the day. Hospitable as people ever get to be, every man's latchstring hung on the outside of his door. The great man of the place was Frederick Fortrebe, of great strength of mind and business capacity. He was the great merchant for all Arkansas east of Little Rock."



View on the Arkansas.

Pine Bluff, the county seat of Jefferson county, on the right or southern bank of Arkansas River, is by land 45 miles south-westerly from Little Rock, and 90 by land from Napoleon, at the mouth of the river. The place derives its name from the *pin*es growing on the bluff (some 40 or 50 feet high), on which the place is situated. The village contains three churches, a fine court house, erected at an expense of \$18,000, and about 1,000 inhabitants.

The *White Sulphur Springs*, about seven miles from Pine Bluff, is beginning to be quite a place of resort, from the medicinal properties of its waters.

Fort Smith is about 160 miles from Little Rock, on the W. line of the state, where it is crossed by the Arkansas River, also on the line of the great overland mail route from St. Louis to San Francisco. It has long been noted as a military post on the Indian frontier. *St. Andrew's College*, a Catholic institution, is located near this place. The Ecclesiastical Seminary, considered one of the finest edifices in the country, is located on the college grounds. Steamboats ply between this place and New Orleans.

Van Buren is on the N. bank of the Arkansas River, five miles from the state line dividing it from the Indian Territory. It has a large commerce with the Indians and the immediate neighborhood.

Hot Springs, in Hot Springs county, is a small village 47 miles S.

W. of Little Rock. It is distinguished as being the seat of a large number of hot springs. The temperature of the several springs vary from 110° to 150° Fahrenheit. About three miles N. E. are the chalybeate springs, the waters of which are cold, and in Montgomery county, 50 miles westward, are also sulphur springs. The whole neighborhood is of volcanic formation, and the scenery romantic. The springs are a highly popular place of resort for invalids and pleasure seekers.

Fayetteville, in the northwestern corner of the state, is a beautiful town, long noted for its literary institutions.

TEXAS.

THE signification of the word Texas is unknown. The name, on the first discovery of the country, was that of an Indian town on the Neches. In



ARMS OF TEXAS.

very early times, Texas was known as the "*New Philippines*," and was so alluded to in Spanish official papers. The first landing of any white persons on the soil of Texas was made by La Salle and his companions, Feb. 18, 1685. This adventurer, who was under the patronage of Louis XIV, of France, after his discovery of the mouth of the Mississippi, in 1682, was sent out on a second expedition to take possession of the Mississippi country and that adjacent, in the name of the king of France, and to secure the same by actual settlement. This expedition consisted of four vessels and about 300 men. La Salle, by mistaking his course, proceeded too far to

the south-west, and made his entrance into Matagorda Bay, which he supposed to be one of the mouths or outlets of the Mississippi, which river he had previously discovered. He proceeded about six miles up the Lavaca River, and built a fort on its banks, which he called Fort St. Louis. He afterward explored the country to the eastward as far as the Colorado River, when he became satisfied of his error, and that he was still far to the west of the Mississippi.

Having ascertained nearly his actual position, he determined on opening a communication with the French settlements in Illinois, and for this purpose, on March 22, 1686, with twenty of his men, set out on a journey of 2,000 miles, over an unexplored country. He encountered many difficulties on his progress toward Eastern Texas. He proceeded, it is supposed, as far as the Neches River, where he was taken sick. He was kindly treated there by the Ceniz tribe of Indians, but on his recovery, he found his stock of ammunition so reduced that he was compelled to return to his small colony for

another outfit. From various causes the number of the colonists was reduced to forty men. Leaving one half of these at the fort, La Salle, on the 12th of Jan., 1687, commenced a second journey to Illinois. Having arrived again among the friendly Cenis Indians, his men being quarrelsome, killed several of their companions, and afterward murdered La Salle himself, on the 20th of March, 1687. The survivors continued their quarrels till the murderers themselves were assassinated. Finally Joutil, the historian of the expedition, with six others, continued their journey to Illinois, where five of them arrived in safety, and thence proceeded, by way of Canada, to France. When the Indians in the neighborhood of Lavacca heard of the death of La Salle, they attacked the garrison in St. Louis, and killed all but four, whom they took prisoners. Thus ended the first attempt at a settlement of Texas.

The Spanish government having heard of La Salle's expedition to Texas, and wishing to contest the claim of France to the country, sent Captain De Leon with an expedition to Matagorda Bay. They arrived at Fort St. Louis April 22, 1689. From this point he proceeded to the Cenis nation, where he found two of the French colonists, whom he took and sent to the mines in Mexico. De Leon was afterward sent into Texas a second time, where he established several missions and military posts. In 1691, Teran was appointed, by the government of Spain, governor of Texas and Coahuila, this being the first attempt to organize a government here. Teran established posts and formed settlements on Red River, on the Neches and Guadalupe. About this time was established the missions of San Francisco and San Juan Bautista. This last was situated on the "old San Antonio road," which was laid out about this time, by St. Denis, the French commandant at Nachitoches, with a view to open a trade with Mexico, and which continued to be traveled by Mexican traders and others, for 140 years afterward.

The hostility of the Indians, and the heavy expenses attending these efforts to colonize Texas, caused the king of Spain to abandon, for a time, this enterprise. The missions, however, struggled along under many discouragements. In 1712, Louis XIV, of France, still disputing the Spanish claim, granted a charter to Crozat, including both Louisiana and Texas, and appointed Condillac governor of the whole territory. In order to obtain possession of the rich mines in the interior of Mexico, Condillac sent St. Denis with a command, to establish settlements and open a way to the mining regions. The Spanish authorities in Mexico became alarmed by these proceedings, and in order to defeat the enterprise, sent Capt. Don Ramon to establish new posts and fortify the missions previously established. Ramon established many missions, in different parts of Texas, in the year 1715, which has, therefore, been called the "year of missions in Texas." From this year the permanent occupancy of Texas by Spain may be dated.

In 1721, De Bienville, the governor of Louisiana, fitted out an expedition to drive out the Spaniards from Texas. The expedition landed in Matagorda Bay, but on account of the hostility of the Indians, they soon returned. In 1728, the Spanish government made an order to send 400 families to Texas, to be taken from the Canary Islands. The first of these emigrants settled in San Antonio; and these, together with others from the city of Mexico, who arrived about the same time, laid the first permanent foundation of that city. About this time, the *Natchez*, a powerful tribe of Indians in Louisiana, and the *Apaches*, and some other warlike tribes in Texas, made war against both the French and Spanish settlements. The Apaches made frequent incursions upon San Antonio, and greatly harassed the inhabitants;

while the Natchez attacked the French garrison at Natchitoches. This war broke out in 1730, and continued for two years, when the Spaniards defeated the Indians in a great battle, which, for a time, gave peace to the country.

In 1762, France ceded Louisiana to Spain, who, having thus acquired possession of both Louisiana and Texas, established some new frontier defenses, but allowed only two garrisons to Texas, the one at San Antonio, and the other at La Bahia. The trade of Texas, consisting almost entirely in horses, cattle and sheep, was, after this, prosecuted with New Orleans with less difficulty, and the precious metals from various parts of Mexico passed through Texas without opposition. The policy, however, of the Spanish government, in not allowing any free trade, cut off all commerce from the coast of Texas, which was but imperfectly known, only now and then a contraband trader, or a piratical cruiser, coming into Galveston to conceal a prize.

"In 1765, the population of Texas, confined almost entirely to Adaes, San Antonio, La Bahia, with a few at Nacogdoches, Orquisaco and Mound Prairie, is said not to have exceeded 1,500, one half of whom were Indians domiciliated." When Spain declared war against Great Britain, in 1779, Don Jose Galvez, then governor of Louisiana, engaged in active hostilities, and received a few recruits from Texas, who aided in the victories at Natchez, Pensacola, and other places. Previous to and during the American Revolution, an active trade was carried on by the Spanish settlement at Natchez, through Nacogdoches, to the interior of Texas, and it was through those engaged in this trade that its beauty and fertility became known to the Americans, and attracted adventurers from the United States.

In Oct., 1800, Spain, by secret treaty, retroceded Louisiana back to France. In 1803, Bonaparte, being in want of money, sold the whole of Louisiana to the United States. The western boundaries of this territory were quite undefined, but the River Sabine was finally, in 1819, in treaty with Spain, agreed upon as the boundary upon the gulf. At the close of 1806, Texas was comparatively prosperous, owing chiefly to the disbursement of money for the support of the troops at the fortified places; the population at this time was estimated at about 7,000. Some few Americans had settled along the San Antonio road, in spite of the hostile disposition manifested toward them. Nacogdoches, at this time, contained about 500 inhabitants, among whom were quite a number of Americans.

West of the Sabine was a tract, called the "Neutral Ground," which was occupied by bands of outlaws and desperate men, who lived as buccaneers, by robbery and plunder, perpetrated upon the traders. The Spanish authorities had endeavored to expel them, but could not. The United States sent a force against them and drove them away, but they returned again, and renewed their depredations. About this time, Lieut. A. W. Magee, a native of Massachusetts, who had commanded an expedition against these outlaws, conceived the idea of conquering Texas to the Rio Grande, and of establishing a republican government. This enterprize was undertaken in the name of Don Bernardo Gutierrez, though Magee was in reality at the head of the movement. The freebooters of the neutral ground joined his standard, in June, 1812. The civil war at this time raging in Mexico, favored the designs of Magee, who had with him nearly every able bodied man east of the Trinity. He crossed the Colorado with about 800 men. At this point, he learned that Salcedo, the royalist governor of Texas, had come out against him as far as the Guadalupe, with 1,400 men, where he lay in ambush. Magee

then made a forced march, and reached La Bahia on the 14th of November, which was surrendered to him with but little opposition. Here Magee was besieged by Salcedo for three weeks. Previous to the last assault, Magee agreed to deliver up the fort and return home. When this agreement was made known to the army, it was unanimously voted down. Major Kemper, the next in command, took the lead. Magee, deeply mortified, retired to his tent, and, it is said, died by his own hand a little after midnight. The Spaniards withdrew to San Antonio, after having continued the siege till the 12th of March, 1813.

The Americans, being reinforced, marched on San Antonio. When within about nine miles of that place, they came upon the Spanish army, under Gov. Salcedo, about 2,500 strong, being about double the number of the Americans. The battle of *Rosalis* ensued, nearly 1,000 of the Spaniards were slain, and some few taken prisoners. The next day Gov. Salcedo surrendered, and being put in charge of a company of Bexar Mexicans to be transported to New Orleans, he, with 13 other officers, among whom was ex-Governor Herrera and Cordero, were taken to the bank of the river below the town, where they were stripped and tied, and their throats cut! Col. Kemper, Maj. Ross, and others, being disgusted with such treachery and barbarity, left the army and returned home. Capt. Perry now took the command, and on the night of June 4th, attacked and routed an army of over 2,000 sent against them. The Republicans, however, were finally defeated by another army, under Gen. Arredondo, on the Medina, with great slaughter. Only 93 Americans reached Natchitoches, among whom were Col. Perry and Capts. Taylor and Ballard. The Spaniards being successful, in revenge, committed horrid atrocities upon the friends of the Republican party. Thus ended the first effort at Texan independence.

In Feb., 1819, in a treaty with Spain, the Floridas were ceded to the United States, and the Sabine agreed upon as the boundary of the Spanish possessions. Texas thus being relinquished for Florida, a far less valuable territory, gave much dissatisfaction to the southern portion of the people of the United States. Early in 1819, Dr. James Long raised a company in Natchez, of 75 men, and proceeded to Nacogdoches, and on his arrival, being joined by Col. Davenport and Bernardo Gutierrez, his command was increased to 300. A provisional government was then formed, and Texas was declared to be a "*free and independent republic*." They also enacted laws, and fixed the price of lands, those on Red River being estimated at a dollar per acre. They also established the first printing office, Horatio Bigelow being the editor of the paper. Gen. Long posted a few troops at the crossing of the Trinity, the falls of the Brazos, and at other places; he also dispatched Col. Gaines to Galveston, in order to obtain the co-operation of Lafitte, the freebooter, in the revolution. This was declined, Lafitte stating the forces were entirely inadequate for the purpose. Meantime, the royalists, under Col. Perez, came and took the post on the Brazos, with eleven prisoners, Oct. 11, 1819, and on the 15th they took La Bahia (now Goliad), and afterward the post on the Trinity, and then proceeded to Nacogdoches, Gen. Long and his men having barely made their escape to the Sabine. Perez proceeded to Cooshattie village, and about 40 miles below that place, after a severe conflict with the Republicans, routed them. The latter fled to Bolivar Point, near Galveston, where Gen. Long afterward joined them.

Gen. Long appears to have continued his head-quarters at Bolivar Point for some time; meanwhile Lafitte was obliged to leave Galveston. On the

very day on which he left, Gen. Long, with Col. Milam and others, came over from Bolivar Point, and dined with Lafitte. Soon after, Long, Milam, and Trespalacios, collecting their forces sailed with them down the coast. Gen. Long landed near the mouth of the San Antonio, and proceeding with a party took possession of La Bahia. Milam and Trespalacios soon after went to Mexico, in order to raise funds from the Republican government, for at this time the Revolutionary cause was gaining ground in Mexico. Notwithstanding this, it appears that the royalists succeeded in capturing Gen. Long soon after, when he was sent to the city of Mexico, and then set at liberty, and finally assassinated. The wife of Gen. Long, who remained at Bolivar Point, during the absence of her husband, having heard of his death, returned to her friends in the United States.*

In Dec., 1820, Moses Austin, a native of Connecticut, but for some time a resident of Missouri, set out for San Antonio de Bexar, to solicit the sanction of the government, and to procure a tract of land, for the settlement of an Anglo-American colony in Texas. On presenting himself to the governor, he was, according to the Spanish regulations respecting foreigners, ordered to leave the province immediately. On crossing the public square, he accidentally met the Baron de Bastrop, with whom he had a slight acquaintance in the United States, many years before. By his influence he obtained a second interview with the governor, the result of which was that his petition to introduce three hundred American families into Texas, was recommended and forwarded to the proper authorities in Mexico. It was granted in Jan., 1821: Mr. Austin returned before its fate was known, and died shortly afterward. He left special injunctions to his son, *Stephen F. Austin*, to carry out his cherished plan to establish a colony.

On July 21, 1821, Stephen F. Austin, accompanied by Senor Seguin and seventeen pioneers, entered the wilderness of Texas to lay the foundation of her present prosperity. He explored various parts, and after meeting with losses and difficulties, located his colony on the Brazos. Austin soon repaired to San Antonio, to report to the governor, who appears to have been friendly to the enterprise. When he arrived there, in March, 1822, he learned, with much regret, that it was necessary to make a journey to the city of Mexico, to procure a grant from the supreme authorities. On the 29th of April ensuing, Col. Austin arrived in Mexico, and succeeded in obtaining from Iturbide, then emperor, a confirmation of the grant made to his father. When about to return to Texas, Iturbide was overthrown, and his acts declared null and void. Austin was again obliged to apply to the reigning authorities, who renewed the grant, and in effect clothed him with almost sovereign power. In conjunction with Baron Bastrop, Austin fixed his colonial capital on the Brazos, calling it *San Felipe de Austin*.

* Mrs. Long, formerly Miss Wilkinson, of Maryland, remained for a considerable period with two young children, attended by only a single servant. While in this lonesome situation, exposed to many dangers, her youngest child, a daughter, was born, being, it is believed, the first born of the Anglo-Saxon race in southern Texas, and possibly the first in the state. She was born Dec. 14, 1820, and died at the age of 2½ years, in Jefferson county, Miss., near Rodney. She named her little daughter *Mary James*, but in accordance with the wishes of some of her Mexican friends, she received the baptismal name, at San Antonio, of *Marie Aransas Jacoba Pedro*. While Mrs. L. remained alone on the point, she lived in apprehension of a visit from the Cannibal Indians, a murderous race who frequented the coast and Galveston Island. By the aid of a spy glass, she could discern the movements of the Indians, and when they appeared to be making for the Point, she raised a flag and fired off a cannon, and by this means probably saved the lives of herself and children. Mrs. Long, at present, resides at her plantation, near Richmond, Texas.

When the Mexican government, in 1825, abolished slavery within her limits, most of the settlers in Texas being planters from the southern states, who had brought their slaves with them, felt themselves aggrieved, and petitioned the Mexican congress in vain for relief. On the establishment of *Centralism*, under Santa Anna, Texas, in 1835, declared her independence. In 1836, Santa Anna, president of Mexico, with a force of several thousand men, moved forward, threatening to exterminate the Americans, or to drive them from the soil of Texas. In March, San Antonio de Bexar was besieged; the Alamo there, defended by only 187 Americans, was carried by storm, and all slain: among them were Col. Travis, Col. David Crockett and Col. Bowie, the inventor of the *bowie-knife*. While Santa Anna was engaged at San Antonio, Gen. Urrea marched upon Goliad. He had a severe contest with Col. Fannin's troops, who, on March 20th, surrendered themselves as prisoners of war. Nine days afterward the Texan prisoners were led out and massacred, to the number of 330, in cold blood.

On the 7th of April, 1836, Santa Anna arrived at San Felipe with the divisions of Sesma and Tolsa. He proceeded down the west bank of the Brazos, crossed the river at Richmond, and on the 16th reached Harrisburg. The Texans, under Gen. Houston, now reduced to less than 800 men, retiring before his advance, proceeded down the bank of the Buffalo Bayou, and took a position near the River San Jacinto. On the 21st of April, 1836, Santa Anna, with a force of over 1,700 men, being encamped near Gen. Houston, was attacked by the Texans. When within about 600 yards, the Mexican line opened their fire upon them, but the Texans, nothing daunted, pressed on to a close conflict, which lasted about eighteen minutes, when the enemy gave way, and were totally routed, nearly every man was either killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. The Texan loss was but 2 killed, and 23 wounded. This victory secured the independence of Texas.

In 1841, President Lamar organized what has been termed, the "Santa Fe Expedition," the object of which was, to open a trade with Santa Fe, and to establish Texan authority, in accordance with the treaty of Santa Anna, over all the territory east of the Rio Grande. Santa Fe, lying east of that river, was still in possession of the Mexicans. On the 18th of June, the expedition, numbering three hundred and twenty-five men under Gen. M'Leod, left Austin, the capital of Texas, and after a journey of about three months, arrived at the Spanish settlements in New Mexico. They were intercepted by a vastly superior force, and surrendered on condition of their being allowed to return; but instead of this, they were bound with ropes and leather thongs, in gangs of six or eight, stripped of most of their clothing, and marched to the city of Mexico, a distance of 1,200 miles. On their route, they were treated with cruelty, beaten, and insulted; forced to march at times by night, as well as by day; blinded by sand; parched by thirst, and famishing with hunger.

Having arrived at Mexico in the latter part of December, they were, by the orders of Santa Anna, thrown into filthy prisons. After a while, part were compelled to labor as common scavengers in the streets of the city; while others were sent to the stone quarries of Pueblo, where, under brutal taskmasters, they labored with heavy chains fastened to their limbs. Of the whole number, three were murdered on the march; several died of ill-treatment and hardship; some few escaped, some were pardoned, and nearly all eventually released.

Soon after the result of this expedition was known, rumors prevailed of an intended invasion of Texas. In September, 1842, twelve hundred Mexicans under Gen. Woll, took the town of Bexar; but subsequently retreated beyond the Rio Grande. A Texan army was collected, who were zealous to carry the war into Mexico. After various disappointments and the return of most of the volunteers, three hundred Texans crossed the Rio Grande and attacked the town of Mier, which was garrisoned by more than two thousand Mexicans strongly posted.

In a dark, rainy night, they drove in the guard, and in spite of a constant fire of the enemy, effected a lodgment in some houses in the suburbs, and with the aid of the deadly rifle, fought their way into the heart of the place. At length, Ampudia sent a white flag, which was accompanied by Gen. La Vega and other officers, to inform the Texans of the utter hopelessness of resistance against an enemy ten times their number. The little band at length very reluctantly surrendered, after a loss of only thirty-five in killed and wounded, while the Mexicans admitted theirs to have been over five hundred.

The Texans, contrary to the stipulations, were marched to Mexico, distant one thousand miles. On one occasion, two hundred and fourteen of them, although unarmed, rose upon their guard of over three hundred men, overpowered and dispersed them, and commenced their journey homeward; but ignorant of the country and destitute of provisions, and being pursued by a large party, they were obliged to surrender. Every tenth man was shot for this attempt at escape. The others were thrown into the dungeons of Perote, where about thirty died of cruel treatment. A few escaped, and the remainder were eventually released.

Early application was made by Texas to be annexed to the United States. Several years passed over without any serious attempts having been made by Mexico to regain Texas, and the political freedom of the country was thus considered as established. Presidents Jackson and Van Buren, in turn, objected on the ground of the unsettled boundary of Texas, and the peaceful relations with Mexico. President Tyler brought forward the measure, but it was lost in congress. It having been the test question in the ensuing presidential election, and the people deciding in its favor by the election of the democratic candidates, Texas was annexed to the Union by a joint resolution of congress, Feb. 28, 1845.

The Mexican minister, Almonte, who had before announced that Mexico would declare war if Texas was annexed, gave notice that since America had consummated "the most unjust act in her history," negotiations were at an end.

War with Mexico then ensued. The theater of war in this state was on the Rio Grande. Gen. Taylor, with the American troops, routed the Mexicans on the soil of Texas, at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, and the arms of the United States were every where triumphant. The state government was organized on the 19th of Feb., 1846. The boundary between New Mexico and Texas, the latter of which claimed the line of the Rio Grande, was adjusted by treaty in 1850.

The joint resolution by which Texas was annexed to the Union, gives permission for the erection of four additional states from its territory, and in these words—"New states, not exceeding four in number, in addition to said state of Texas, and having sufficient population, may hereafter, by the consent of said state, be formed out of the territory thereof, which shall be entitled to admission under the provisions of the Federal constitution."

The opposition to the annexation of Texas was, at the time, very great in the North. Massachusetts, through her legislature, declared "that re-annexation of Texas was a virtual dissolution of the Union." The term *re-annexation*, used at that period, grew out of the claims acquired by the purchase of Louisiana of France, in 1803. The French claimed, at the time of the sale to the United States, that the western limit of Louisiana, on the Gulf of Mexico, was the Rio Grande, 500 miles west of the Sabine. The limit, however, was undefined, and a large tract west of the Sabine, as before observed, bore for many years the term of "Neutral Ground," which was, by the citizens of the south, considered of right as belonging to the United States. When the Sabine was fixed upon as the boundary, by the treaty of

1819, with Spain, which gave us Florida, all the territory west of that stream was lost, until it became securely fastened by what has been termed the "re-annexation of Texas."

Texas is bounded N. by New Mexico and the Indian Territories, from the latter it is divided chiefly by the Arkansas and Red Rivers; E. by Arkansas and Louisiana, being separated from the latter by Sabine River; S. by the Gulf of Mexico; and west by Mexico and the Territory of New Mexico, being separated from Mexico by the River Rio Grande. It is situated between 26° and $36^{\circ} 30'$ N. Lat., and between $93^{\circ} 30'$ and 110° W. Long. from Greenwich. It is 800 miles long from E. to W., and 700 from N. to S., containing, it is estimated 237,321 square miles.

The surface of the country has been described as that of a vast inclined plane, gradually sloping from the mountainous regions of the west toward the sea coast in the south-east, and traversed by numerous rivers, all having that direction. Texas may be divided into three regions: the first, which is level, extends along the coast, with a breadth varying from 50 to 100 miles, being narrowest at the south-west; this part of the state has a rich, alluvial soil, and is singularly free from swamps and lagoons. Broad woodlands fringe the rivers, between which are extensive and rich pasture lands. The second division, the largest of the three, is the undulating prairie region, which extends from 150 to 200 miles further inland from the level section. Here are the beautiful "islands of timber." Here the soil, a little broken, is as rich as the land in the alluvial country below, more easily worked, and produces a greater variety of products. In this region, the planter may raise all the cotton, corn, rice, grain and tobacco he requires, and stock to any extent, without much labor or care. The third, or mountainous region, in the W. and S.W., forming part of the Sierra Madre, or Mexican Alps, has been but little explored. Texas abounds with minerals, and is interesting in its geology. Silver, gold, lead, copper, alum, etc., are found. Iron ore pervades the greater part of the country, and bituminous coal on the Trinity and Upper Brazos.

The Texan year is divided into a wet and dry season. The former lasts from December to March, and the latter from March to December. Though varying with location from tropical to temperate, the climate is remarkably delightful and salubrious. During the heat of summer, refreshing breezes blow from the south, almost without interruption. In the winter ice is seldom seen, except in the northern part of the state. Cotton, tobacco and sugar are the great agricultural staples: in cotton it is pre-eminent. Fruits of almost every kind flourish. Great numbers of cattle, sheep and horses are reared, vast herds of buffalo and wild horses roam over the prairies, while deer and game are abundant. Population, in 1850, 212,592; in 1860, 601,039 including 180,388 slaves.

GALVESTON CITY, the commercial capital of Texas, is situated at the eastern end of Galveston Island, Lat. $29^{\circ} 18' 14''$ N., Long. $81^{\circ} 46' 34''$ W., about 300 miles westward of New Orleans, and upward of 250 from Austin, the capital of the state. The island on which the city is built is very level, slightly elevated above the level of the sea, about 28 miles long, and from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles broad. There is 12 feet water over the bar at low tide. Vessels of 800 tons can cross it with 1,200 bales of cotton, and receive, by lightering, 800 bales more at the outer bar.

When the island was first discovered by La Salle, in 1686, it was called San Louis, but afterward it was named Galveston, from Galvez, a Spanish nobleman. The first settlement was about the year 1835, by persons who, during the Texas Revolution, fled from the interior. At the period of the war of 1812, Lafitte, the pirate, had a port here. His vessels lay where the wharf is represented in the foreground of the picture. Population, 7,000.



North eastern view of Galveston.

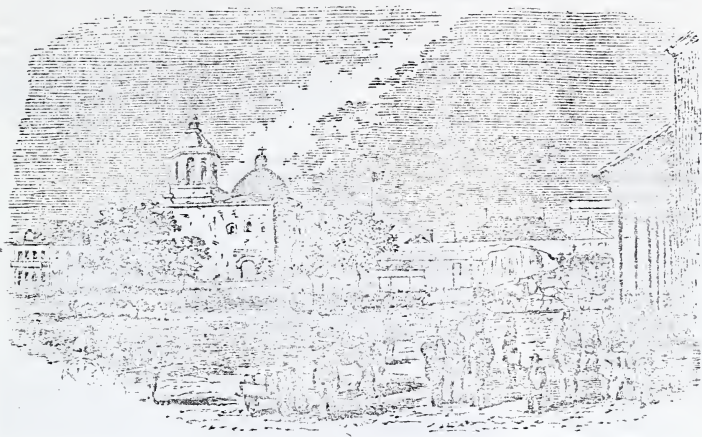
The view shows the appearance of the most compact part of Galveston, as seen from Kuhn or Hendley's wharf, which, like the others, extends a considerable distance from the shore. The towers of the Catholic Church, the Market cupola, and the Movable Light are seen on the left, and the tower of the Episcopal Church on the right. The Railroad, extending over the bridge from Virginia Point to the island, is in the extreme distance on the right.

SAN ANTONIO stands on both sides of the San Antonio, and is about 70 miles S. W. of Austin, and 1,476 from San Diego, California, and has about 8,000 inhabitants. It was for years the headquarters of the United States army in Texas: the great starting point for military expeditions across the plains, between here and the Pacific. A very large proportion of the population are of the Mexican race, and Mexican habits, manners, and customs are largely prevalent. The ALAMO, so celebrated in Texan history, is in San Antonio, on the eastern side of the river, the public square and the principal part of the town being on the west side. The word *alamo*, in Spanish, signifies "cottonwood," from which it is inferred that a grove of cottonwood stood on or near its site.

Col. Ed. E. Cross, of the 5th New Hampshire Volunteers, killed at Gettysburg, gave this description of San Antonio about the year 1859:

"San Antonio is like Quebec, a city of the olden time, jostled and crowded by modern enterprise. The latter-day American building, with its four or five stories, and half glass front, overtops the grim old Spanish wall and the dilapidated Mexican 'hacal,' which betokens a by-gone era. Here have the Germans settled in large numbers, bringing good old fashioned industry along with their lager beer. Their neat cottages and vegetable gardens are noticeable all about the suburbs. As

a general thing, they are a better class of emigrants than those found in our large cities. There is not a steam engine nor a flour mill in San Antonio. All the dry goods, groceries, and manufactured articles needed for a city of eight thousand or ten thousand people, whose trade with the frontiers amounts to millions every year, are hauled from the sea coast, one hundred and fifty miles, upon wagons and rude



Main Plaza, San Antonio.

San Antonio is one of the oldest towns in the United States. "The Public Square is divided by the Church and some other buildings into two; or rather the original square, or military plaza, was laid off and improved in 1713, having on its east side the Church and the offices of priests and officers. In 1731 was laid off the main square or Plaza of the Constitution."

carts. Flour, potatoes and onions are among the articles of import, the attention of the inhabitants being concentrated upon cotton and cattle. There is not a good bakery, a first nor even a second class hotel in the city. Ice, cut from the ponds of Massachusetts sells, whenever there is a load in town, at from fifty to seventy-five cents per pound. Nothing is cheap but the tough, stringy grass-fed beef, which may be bought in the hoof for from two to two and one half cents per pound. One of our New Englanders who spent a day or two in the city, declared that the opportunities for making money were so many and varied for a man of small capital, that the very contemplation made him feel worth at least half a million.

Walking about the city and its environs, you may well fancy yourself in some strange land. The houses, many of them built of adobe, one story high, and thatched, swarm with their mixed denizens, white, black, and copper-colored. The narrow streets, the stout old walls, which seem determined not to crumble away, the aqueducts, along which run the waters of the San Pedro, the Spanish language, which is spoken by almost everybody, the dark, banditti-like figures that gaze at you from the low doorways—everything, in the Mexican quarter of the city especially, bespeaks a condition widely different from what you are accustomed to behold in any American town. To conduct trade successfully, it is necessary to employ clerks who understand Spanish, or the tongue spoken by Mexicans and called Spanish, as a large amount of trade is done by Mexicans.

The better class of people, Americans and foreigners, speak of "the states" and "news from the states," when referring to any other portion of the country than Texas, except to the west.

A large element of the population of San Antonio is Mexican. There are a few respectable, intelligent and wealthy families, but the majority are of the lower order, with all the vices and none of the virtues belonging to the better-situated. The men, whenever they work, are employed as teamsters, herders and day laborers. It is the general belief,

founded as I believe on fact, that a Mexican is good for nothing unless in service over cattle, horses and mules. The bend of their talent is toward live stock. As little Cape Codders divert themselves by playing whoremasters, and in that amusement harpoon kittens and chickens, so does the juvenile Mexican take at once to the lasso, and with precocious skill lariat dogs, goats and calves; and thus, growing up in constant practice, the lariat becomes in his hands a deadly snare. Its throw is swift and certain, and it is alike dreaded by man and beast. Every cattle farm and horse range has its lasso men, or "ropers" as they are called in Texas, whose duty it is to catch runaway and refractory mules, horses and cattle, and in this business they become wonderfully expert. It is ludicrous to see the chopfallen sic which at once comes over an old mule when the lasso has tightened around his throat. Experience has taught him that all attempts at escape are vain, and with a miserable look of resignation he submits to be led off.

The free-and-easy style of life which is characteristic of the lower order of Mexicans is



THE CHURCH OF THE ALAMO.

sure to surprise a stranger. He sees children of both sexes, from two to six years of age, strolling about in the economical and closely-fitting costume bestowed upon them by nature. Women, short and dumpy, with forms guiltless of artificial fixtures, and in the single article of attire denominated a petticoat, brief at both ends, are observed in doors and out, manifesting not the slightest regard for the curious glances of the passers by. Parties of men, women and children bathe in the San Antonio River, just outside the corpor-

ate limits, without the annoyance of dresses. This comfortable fashion was formerly in vogue within the city, until the authorities concluded it might with propriety be dispensed with.

Mexican amusements, in the shape of cockfights and fandangoes, help to elevate and refine the people of San Antonio, such as choose to participate. Every Sunday, just after mass at the old Mission Church, there is a cockfight, generally numerously attended. The pit is located in rear of the church, about one square distant. On last Sabbath, going past the church door about the time of service, I observed a couple of Mexicans kneeling near the door in a pious attitude, which would doubtless have appeared very sober and Christianlike, had not each one held a smart gamecock beneath his arm! Pious souls! They had evidently paused a moment on their way to the cockpit, in order to brush over their little shortcomings for the past week.

The fandangoes take place every evening, and are patronized by the lower orders of people, who, as the sapient circus proprietor in "Hard Times" would declare, "must be amused." A large hall or square room, lighted by a few lamps hung from the walls, or lanterns suspended from the ceiling, a pair of negro fiddlers and twenty or thirty couples in the full enjoyment of a "bolero," or the Mexican polka, help make up the scene. In the corners of the room are refreshment tables, under the charge of women, where coffee, frijoles, tortillas, boiled rice and other eatables may be obtained, whisky being nominally not sold. From the brawls and free fights which often take place, it is surmised that the article may be had in some mysterious manner. At these fandangoes may be seen the mulatto, fresh from the coast or the Pass, with gay clothes and a dozen or so of silver dollars; the United States soldiers just from the barracks, abounding in onths and tobacco; the herdman, with his blanket and long knife, which seems a portion of every Mexican; the disbanded ranger, rough, bearded and armed with his huge holster pistol and long bowie-knife, dancing, eating, drinking, swearing and carousing, like a party of Captain Kidd's men just in from a long voyage. Among the women may be seen all colors and ages from ten to forty; the Creole, the Poblano, the Mexican, and rarely the American or German—generally, in such cases, the dissipated widow or discarded mistress of some soldier or follower of the army.

San Antonio is rapidly improving. Near the Alamo a fine hotel of stone is being erected by an enterprising German. The new Catholic Church is a grand edifice for Texas. Near the city is a quarry of limestone, so soft that it can be cut with a common knife. Exposed to the air for any length of time, it hardens and becomes solid. Some fine warehouses have just been completed; one is rented by the United States for a store-

nouse and barrack building. The wealthy and refined portion of the inhabitants do not seem disposed to erect costly dwellings, probably for the reason that a building of any pretensions to style and finish is a remarkably costly affair. Everything but the stone must be imported; iron from Cincinnati; window frames from Boston; and pine lumber from Florida. Even shingles are brought from Michigan, and glass from Pittsburg. A railway from some point on the coast is needed to develop and improve the country, and until one is constructed San Antonio will be a peculiar and isolated city.

The foundation of San Antonio was an Indian mission, as were generally the first settlements under the Spaniards in Texas. This work was undertaken in Texas by the Franciscans, a religious order founded by St. Francis d'Assisi, at Naples, in 1208. Before giving a particular history of this mission, we extract from Yoakum a description of these establishments, with their mode of government and discipline:

The establishments formed in Texas were known as *presidios*,* or *missions*. There was a mission at each *presidio*; but many missions were without soldiers, at least in any considerable numbers. Each *presidio* was entitled to a commandant, and the necessary officers for a command of two hundred and fifty men; though, from various circumstances, the number constantly varied, and was generally less. The troops were inferior, badly clothed, idle, and disorderly. The buildings were erected around a square, *plaza de armas*, and consisted of the church, dwellings for officers, friars, and soldiers, with storehouses, prisons, etc. The size of the square depended on the population, the strength of the force intended to be stationed there, and also upon the extent of the district dependent on the *presidio*. Huts were erected at a short distance from the principal edifices, for the converted Indians. The unmarried of either sex were placed in separate huts, and at night locked up by the friars, who carried the keys. They encouraged chastity among the Indians, and punished its violation by public or private whipping, as the offender was a male or a female.

Fort's were erected near the *presidios*, and sometimes the church was fortified. The civil and military authority was united in the commandant, which, in some matters, was subordinate and in others superior to the ecclesiastical power. The principal duty of the military was to repel the invasion of the wild Indians, and to suppress the rebellious spirit of the converts. The Indians were well fed, clothed, and cared for; their labors were not heavy; and, in these particulars, they could not complain. But they were compelled to perform certain religious ceremonies before they could understand anything of their meaning. Sundry rules were laid down for their every motion, a departure from which was severely punished. It was this tyranny over the minds and bodies of the Indians that enfeebled and wasted them. They were willing to forego the food and raiment of the missions, for the sublime scenery of the vast prairies, the liberty of roaming unmolested over them, and chasing the buffalo and the deer. Freedom, dear to all, is the idol of the Indian. He worships the liberty of nature. When restrained from his loved haunts, he pines, and sickens, and dies. Had the Franciscans, like the Jesuits on the lakes, gone with their flocks on their hunting excursions, joined them in their feasts, and praised them for their skill in the chase, they would have met with greater success. But the Jesuits possessed a twofold advantage: they had the power of dispensing with tedious and uninteresting prayers and ceremonies; and they also enjoyed the aid of the cheerful, talkative, open-hearted French; while the Franciscans, without such dispensing power, were likewise bound to cooperate with the gloomy, suspicious, and despotic Spaniards.

The Franciscan fathers made regular reports of the success of their missions to the superior, and the latter to the general of the order. On these reports depended to a great extent the favor shown the missionaries; hence they were excited to zeal in their efforts to make converts. Not content with the fruits of persuasion and kind treatment, they made forays upon the surrounding tribes. The soldiers performed

* *Presidio*, a garrison of soldiers.

this duty. The prisoners taken, especially the young, were trained alike in the mysteries of the Christian faith and agriculture. To effect their training, they were divided among the older and more deserving Indians of the mission, who held them in servitude until they were of an age suitable to marry. At the proper time this rite was faithfully performed, and thus there grew up a race of domestic Indians around the missions.

To add to the strength of the missions and the number of the converts, reliable Indians of these establishments were sent out among their wild brethren to bring them in. This was sometimes done by persuasion, and sometimes by deception and force. However, they were brought to the missions, and incorporated among the learners and workmen of the fold.

When we call to mind the fanaticism and ignorance of that age, and the important fact that the Indians who remained long in the missions became greatly attached to their spiritual guides and the form of their worship, we must admit that these pioneers of religion deserved some praise. Their toils and privations evinced their faith—their patience and humility should satisfy the world of their sincerity.

Until the present century, the Catholics did more for the cause of missions than the Protestants; and if, a century and a half ago, they committed fatal errors in their religious enterprises, it is no more than has since been done. The fate of the aboriginal races of the New World, and even of the Pacific islands, is peculiar. A well-defined instance of any tribe or nation that has been civilized, without a total or partial destruction of its people, can scarcely be produced. This may, to some extent, be attributed to the vices introduced by the friends of the missionaries.

Yoakum gives this history of the founding of the mission at San Antonio:

The venerable mission of the Alamo, the second in Texas, deserves some consideration. It was first founded in the year 1703 by Franciscans of the apostolic college of Queretaro, in the valley of the Rio Grande, under the invocation of San Francisco Solano. Here it remained for five years, but for some reason was removed to a place called San Ildephonso, where it seems to have remained till 1710, at which time it was moved back to the Rio Grande, and reinvoated as the mission of San Jose. Here it remained under the guidance of the good father Jose de Soto till the 1st of May, 1718, when, on account of the scarcity of water, it was removed to the west bank of the San Pedro, about three fourths of a mile north-west of the present parish church of San Antonio. Here it remained, under the protection of the post [fort] of San Antonio de Valero, whose name it assumed, until 1722, when, on account of troubles with the Indians, it was once more removed, with the post, to what is now known as the *Military Plaza*. The main square, or *Plaza of the Constitution*, was formed in 1730, by the colonists sent out at the request of De Aguiayo.* The establishment around the Military Plaza was properly called *San Antonio de Bezar* (*Vejar*), while the town on the east of the church was known as *San Fernando*.

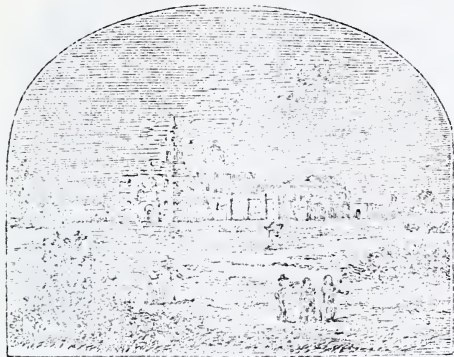
In May, 1774, the people, tired of the lawsuit between the ex-governors Sandoval and Franquis, laid the foundation of the church of their old mission, where it now stands unfinished, as the *church of the Alamo*. It had been seeking a resting place for nearly half a century, and it was time that it should find one. From this period until 1783, it was still known and conducted as the mission of *San Antonio de Valero*. In the meantime, the number of Indians under its charge increased, and as they became civilized, were settled around the mission, thus forming a town on the east side of the river. The company of San Carlos de Parras was stationed there for the protection of the town and mission. It enjoyed a separate organization, and had its own *alcaldes*, and place of worship. But, about this last-named period, the place ceased to be a missionary station. All the Indians brought in for conversion had for some time previously been taken to the missions below the town—perhaps the better to secure them against its corrupting influences; so that, having no further missionary work to perform, San Antonio de Valero became an ordinary

* "In the course of that year, says the ancient record, came twelve families of pure Spanish blood, from the Canary Islands, who hid out and founded the city of San Antonio. Among the settlers was a Garcia, a Flores, a Navarro and a Garza, names afterward prominent in the revolutionary history of Texas, while it was claimed as a Spanish colony. One year after their arrival the colonists, assisted by the Franciscan fathers and their crowds of Indian converts, erected the quaint church which now, defaced and battered by the storms of one hundred and twenty-seven years, stands in the main plaza of the city, a monument of the almost buried past. Its evening bells echo sweetly their chimes as in the days of long ago, and crowds of worshippers still kneel upon the old stone floor, and bow before the venerable picture of the Crucifixion which hangs, all dim and discolored, above the altar."

Spanish town, and the old missionary church of the Alamo became a common parish-church.

The traveler already quoted from, in describing the Missions on the San Antonio River, in the vicinity of the town, which were named respectively San Jose, La Espada, San Juan and Concepcion, says:

They were large, strong, half church, half fortress edifices, in appearance some-



MISSION OF SAN JOSE.

thing like the feudal castles of olden time, whose ruins are scattered all over Europe, surrounded by a high and massive stone wall, with only one entrance. The buildings, consisting of chapels, dormitories, halls, cells and kitchens, were all built of limestone, the quarrying and transporting of which must alone have been an immense labor, as some of the edifices were of great extent. Each mission was surrounded by an extensive farm, whose acequias and irrigating ditches are yet visible. Among all the missions in this section that of San Jose must have been conspicuous from its size, its strength, and the rude splendor with which it was decorated. Still may be seen carvings of saints and sacred relics upon the walls and ceilings. Over the main entrance, which is garnished by many ornaments, there is yet a battered representation of the Virgin and her infant, and the patron, San Jose, cut in the hard limestone. Profane heretics have used the eyes and nose of the venerable saint, and the place "where his heart ought to be," for targets, where they have chronicled their skill as marksmen. The chapel front is ornamented with coarse fresco painting, in red, yellow and blue, in its day, doubtless, to the ignorant beings who worshiped there, a grand exhibition of art. From San Jose we visited the mission of Concepcion, which was once a lofty structure with two tall towers and a dome, surrounded by a thick arched wall. We found a lot of Mexican cattle-herders in full possession, and the main chapel room filled with filth and rubbish. The outbuildings and arches are overgrown with moss and weeds. In the soft twilight which was slowly stealing over the San Antonio valley the scene was solemn and sad, and we startled at our own footsteps upon the desolate pavement, half expecting to see the cowed figure of some ghostly monk start from the gloomy arches to rebuke our unhallowed intrusion.

Crossing the San Antonio River from the main plaza, we came to a quaint old edifice, whose seamed and battered front betokens an acquaintance with shot and shell. It was built after the Moorish style, and although of late a modern roof has been added, is the same old edifice, memorable in the annals of *Texan independence—the Alamo!* a name familiar to the American people as a "household word"—a name associated with a siege and a defense the like of which can scarcely be found in the history of any state. The place where fell Bowie, Travis, Crockett, and a band of as brave spirits as ever upheld struggling freedom in any quarter of the globe.

The Alamo was never intended for a fortress, but its walls are very strong, and it has been the scene of severe conflicts beside that which has given it such wide renown. One of these was in the year 1835, when Gen. Cos, commanding a strong Mexican force, was besieged in San Antonio by the Texans, under Gen. Burleson. The siege was about to be abandoned, when informa-

tion was given of the position of affairs in the town by a Mexican deserter. This was on the 4th of December, and so aroused the military spirit of Col. Benjamin R. Milam, that he exclaimed, "*Who will go with old Ben Milam into San Antonio?*" The reply was an approving shout from the officers and



The Alamo, San Antonio.

The Alamo, the "Thermopylae of Texan Independence," where fell Bowie, Travis, Crockett, with all the rest of its brave garrison, not even one being left to tell the story of its heroic defense, is yet standing in the town of San Antonio, and is used by the Quartermaster's Department of the U. S. Army. The view is faithfully taken in all its details and adjuncts, even to the costumes in the foreground, where is shown the Mexican ox-cart, with its broad wooden wheels devoid of iron tires. The church, which was the main fortress, is shown, on a larger scale, on a preceding page.

men, who volunteered, to the number of 301, to make the assault, and elected Milam as their leader. The plan adopted was to storm the town the next morning in two divisions, the first under Col. Milam, and the second under Col. Frank W. Johnson.

The town was fortified at the public square by breastworks and batteries, besides which the houses being of stone were in effect like so many forts. The Alamo, which is on the east side of the river—the main part of the town, with the plaza, being on the west—commands some of the entrances to it, and was, at the time, strongly fortified and garrisoned. The assault began just before daylight on the morning of the 5th, the first division attacking on one side of the town, and the second on the opposite. The storming lasted three days. The Texans gradually worked their way to the center of the place. The Mexicans occupied the tops of the houses, and cutting loopholes in the parapet walls, fired upon their foe. The Texans, with picks and crowbars, made passage ways through the houses; first thrusting through their rifles and firing upon their defenders, they drove them from room to room, and from house to house, until, thus gallantly fighting inch by inch, they had penetrated so near the plaza, that Gen. Cos, on the morning of the 9th, seeing further resistance hopeless, sent in a flag of truce, expressing a wish to capitulate. The next day the terms were concluded. They were most honorable to the Mexicans, and more glorious in their moderation to the Texans, than the victory itself. The Mexican officers were permitted to retain their arms and private

property, and the officers and troops allowed to return to Mexico. The enemy lost about 150 men, the Texans but a few. Among them was the heroic Milan, who was instantly killed by a rifle shot in the head, while crossing a yard between two houses. By his death the command devolved on Col. Johnson, who had the honor of raising the flag above the walls of Bexar, after a victory of 300 men over 1,400 entrenched in a strongly fortified town.

The "*Fall of the Alamo*," like the famous defense of Thermopylae, is an event that will long live among the heroic incidents of history. At two o'clock in the afternoon, Feb. 23, 1836, Santa Anna, with the second division of the Mexican army, marched into the town of San Antonio, having been preceded by an advance detachment the second day preceding. His army numbered several thousand strong, and comprised the choicest troops of his country. On the same day a regular siege of the Alamo commenced and lasted eleven days, until the final assault. The Alamo was then garrisoned by 156 men, under Lieut. Col. Wm. Barret Travis, with Col. James Bowie, second, as is believed, in command. Col. David Crockett was also with the garrison, but it is unknown whether he had a command, as he had joined it only a few weeks before:

Santa Anna immediately demanded a surrender of the garrison *without terms!* their reply was a shot from the fort. He then raised a *blood red flag* on the church at Bexar, as a token of vengeance against the rebels, and began an attack, and this by slow approaches. Travis sent off an express with a strong appeal for aid, declaring that he would *never surrender nor retreat*. For many days no marked incidents occurred in the siege. On the 1st of March, 32 gallant men, from Gonzales, under Capt. John W. Smith, entered the Alamo, and raised the effective force to 188 men. On the 2d, Travis sent out by a courier a last appeal, setting forth fully his determination to remain until he got relief or perished in the defense. About the same time he also wrote an affecting note to a friend, "Take care of my little boy. If the country should be saved, I may make him a splendid fortune; but if the country should be lost, and I should perish, he will have *nothing but the proud recollection that he is the son of a man who died for his country.*"

The account of the final assault, with the accompanying description of the Alamo, we take from the "*Fall of the Alamo*," a pamphlet by Capt. R. M. Potter, published at San Antonio, in July, 1860. He had unusual opportunities for obtaining all that can be known of the final tragedy, the details of which have not been accurately given, for the reason that not a single defender survived it:

Santa Anna after calling a council of war on the 4th of March, fixed upon the morning of Sunday, the 6th, as the time for the final assault. Before narrating it, however, I must describe the Alamo as it then existed. It had been founded soon after the first settlement of the vicinity, and being originally built as a place of safety for the settlers and their property in case of Indian hostility, with sufficient room for that purpose, it had neither the strength nor compactness, nor the arrangement of dominant points, which belong to a regular fortification.*

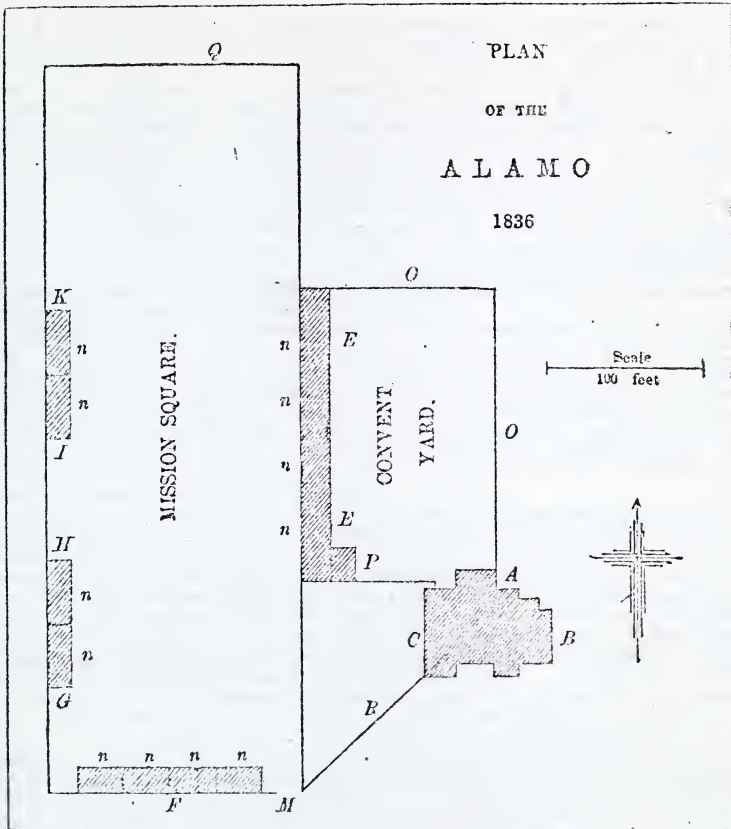
As its area contained between two and three acres, a thousand men would barely have sufficed to man its defenses, and before a heavy siege train its walls would soon have crumbled.

From recollection of the locality, as viewed in 1841, I can trace the extent of the outer walls, which were demolished thirteen years ago; and the accompanying diagram is made from actual measurement.

(A) Represents the Chapel or the fortress, which is 75 feet long, 62 wide, and 22½ high, the wall of solid masonry being four feet thick. It was originally in one story, but

* The front of the Alamo Chapel bears the date of 1757; but the other works must have been built earlier.

had upper windows, under which platforms were erected for mounting cannon in those openings. (s) designates one of those upper windows which I will have occasion to mention, and (c) the front door of the church. (d) is a wall 50 feet long, connecting this church with the long barrack (e e). The latter is a stone house 186 feet long, 18 wide,



and 18 high, being of two stories. (f) is a low stone barrack, 114 feet long and 17 wide. Those houses, or at least their original walls, which (except those of the church), are about thirty inches thick, are still standing. They had at the time flat terrace roofs of beams and plank, covered with a thick coat of cement. The present roofs and the adjoining sheds and other woodwork, have been added since the place was converted into a quartermaster's depot of the United States army. (g h i and k) were rooms built against the west barrier, and were demolished with it. The barrier wall was from 6 to 8 feet high, and 23½ thick, inclosing the large area, 452 feet long and 162 wide: this the long barrack (e e) fronted on the east, and the low barrack (f) on the south. (u) designates the gate of the area, and (n n n) locate the doors of the several houses which opened upon it. Most of those doors had within each a semi-circular barricade or parapet composed of a double curtain of hides upheld by stakes and filled in with earth. From behind these the garrison could fire front or oblique through the doors. Some of the rooms were also loopholed. (o o) describes a wall from five to six feet high and 23½ thick, which inclosed a smaller area east of the long barrack and north of the church, 189 feet by 102. (r) locates an upper room in the south east angle of said barrack—(q) a breach in the north barrier, and (k) an intrenchment running from the south east angle of the chapel to the gate. This work was not manned against the assault. According to Santa Anna's re-

port twenty-one guns of various calibers were planted in different parts of the works. Yoakum in his description of the armament mentions but fourteen. Whichever number be correct, however, has but little bearing upon the merits of the final defense, in which the cannon had little to do. They were in the hands of men unskilled in their use, and owing to the construction of the fort each had a limited range, which the enemy in moving up seem in a measure to have avoided.

It was resolved by Santa Anna that the assault should take place at early dawn. The order for the attack, which I have read, but have no copy of, was full and precise in its details, and was signed by Brig. Gen. Amador as head of the staff. The besieging force consisted of the battalions of Toluca, Jimenes, Matamoras, los Zapadores (or sappers), and another, which I think was that of Guerrero, and the dragoon regiment of Dolores. The infantry was directed at a certain hour, between midnight and dawn, to form at a convenient distance from the fort in four columns of attack and a reserve. This disposition was not made by battalions; for the light companies of all of them were incorporated with the Zapadores to form the reserve, and some other transpositions may have been made. A certain number of scaling ladders and axes were to be borne with particular columns. The cavalry were to be stationed at different points around the fortress to cut off fugitives. From what I have learned of men engaged in the action it seems that these dispositions were changed on the eve of attack, so far as to combine the five bodies of infantry into three columns of attack. This included the troops designated in the order as the reserve; and the only actual reserve that remained was the cavalry.

The immediate command of the assault was intrusted to Gen. Castrillon, a Spaniard by birth and a brilliant soldier. Santa Anna took his station with a part of his staff and all the regimental bands at a battery south of the Alamo and near the old bridge, from which the signal was to be given by a bugle note for the columns to move simultaneously, at double quick time, against different points of the fortress. One, composed mainly of the battalion of Toluca was to enter the north breach—the other two to move against the southern side; one to attack the gate of the large area—the other to storm the chapel. By the timing of the signal, it was calculated that the columns would reach the foot of the wall just as it became light enough to operate.

When the hour came the batteries and the music were alike silent, and a single blast of the bugle was at first followed by no sound save the rushing tramp of soldiers. The guns of the fortress soon opened upon them, and then the bands at the south battery struck up the assassin note of *dequello*—"no quarter!" But a few and not very effective discharges from the works could be made before the enemy were under them;* and it is thought that the worn and weary garrison was not till then fully mustered. The Toluca column arrived first at the foot of the wall, but was not the first to enter the area. A large piece of cannon at the north-west angle of the area probably commanded the breach. Either this or the deadly fire of the riflemen at that point, where Travis commanded in person, brought the column to a disordered halt, and its leader Col. Duque, fell dangerously wounded. But, while this was occurring, one of the other columns entered the area by the gate or by escalade near it. The defense of the outer walls had now to be abandoned; and the garrison took refuge in the buildings already described. It was probably while the enemy were pouring in through the breach that Travis fell at his post; for his body was found beside the gun just referred to. All this passed within a few minutes after the bugle sounded. The early loss of the outer barrier, so thinly manned, was inevitable; and it was not until the garrison became more concentrated and covered in the inner works, that the main struggle commenced. They were more concentrated as to the space, not as to unity; for there was no communicating between the buildings, nor in all cases between rooms. There was now no retreating from point to point; and each group of defenders had to fight and die in the den where it was brought to bay. From the doors, windows and loopholes of the rooms around the area, the crack of the rifle and hiss of the bullet came fierce and fast; and the enemy fell and recoiled in his first efforts to charge. The gun beside which Travis lay was now turned against the buildings, as were also some others; and shot after shot in quick succession was sent crashing through the doors and barricades of the several rooms. Each ball was followed by a storm of musketry and a charge; and thus room after room was carried at the point of the bayonet, when all within them died fighting to the last. The struggle was made up of a number of separate and desperate combats, often hand to hand, between squads of the garrison and bodies of the enemy. The bloodiest spot about the fortress was the long barrack and the ground in front of it, where the enemy fell in heaps.

In the meantime the turning of Travis' gun had been initiated by the garrison. A small

*A sergeant of the Zapadores told me that the column he belonged to encountered but one discharge of grape in moving up, and that passed mostly over the men's heads.

piece on the roof of the chapel or one of the other buildings was turned against the area while the rooms were being stormed. It did more execution than any other cannon of the fortress; but after a few effective discharges all who manned it fell under the enemy's fire. Crockett had taken refuge in a room of the low barrack near the gate. He either garrisoned it alone, or was left alone by the fall of his companions, when he sallied to meet his fate in the face of the foe, and was shot down. Bowie had been severely hurt by a fall from a platform, and when the attack came on, was confined to his bed in an upper room of the barrack marked (P.) He was there killed on his couch, but not without resistance; for he is said to have shot down with his pistols one or more of the enemy as they entered the chamber.

The church was the last point taken. The column which moved against it, consisting of the battalion of Jimenes and other troops, was at first repulsed, and took refuge among some old houses outside of the barrier, near its south-west angle, till it was rallied and led on by Gen. Amador. It was soon joined by the rest of the force, and the church was carried by a *coup de main*. Its inmates, like the rest, fought till the last, and continued to fire from the upper platforms after the enemy occupied the floor of the building. A Mexican officer told of seeing a man shot in the crown of the head in this melée. During the closing struggle Lieut. Dickinson, with his child in his arms, or tied to his back, as some accounts say, leaped from an upper window (B), and both were killed in the act. Of those he left behind him the bayonet soon gleaned what the bullet missed; and in the upper part of the church the last defender must have fallen. The morning breeze which received his parting breath probably still fanned his flag above that fabric, ere it was pulled down by the victor.*

The Alamo had fallen.

The action, according to Santa Anna's report, lasted thirty minutes. It was certainly short, and possibly no longer space passed between the moment when the enemy fronted the breach and that when resistance died out. Some of the incidents which have to be related separately no doubt occurred simultaneously, and occupied very little time.

The account of the assault which Yoakum and others have adopted as authentic, is evidently one which popular tradition has based on conjecture.

A negro boy, belonging to Travis, the wife of Lieut. Dickinson, Mrs. Alsbury a native of San Antonio, and another Mexican woman, and two children, were the only inmates of the fortress whose lives were spared. The children were those of the two females whose names are given. Lieut. Dickinson commanded a gun in the east upper window of the church. His family was probably in one of the two small upper rooms of the front. This will account for his being able to take one of his children to the rear platform while the building was being stormed. A small irrigating canal runs below the window referred to; and his aim in the desperate attempt at flight, probably was to break his fall by leaping into the water; but the shower of bullets which greeted him rendered the precaution as needless as it was hopeless.

At the time the outer barriers were carried, a few men leaped from them and attempted to escape, but were all cut down by the cavalry. Half an hour or more after the action was over a few men were found concealed in one of the rooms under some mattresses—Gen. Houston, in a letter of the 11th, says as many as seven; but I have generally heard them spoken of as only three or four. The officer to whom they were first reported entreated Santa Anna to spare their lives; but he was sternly rebuked and the men ordered to be shot, which was done. Owing to the hurried and confused manner in which the mandate was obeyed a Mexican soldier was accidentally killed with them.

Castrillon was the soul of the assault. Santa Anna remained at the south battery with the music of the whole army and a part of his staff, till he supposed the place was nearly mastered, when he moved up with that escort toward the Alamo; but returned again on being greeted by a few rifle balls from the upper windows of the church. He, however, entered the area toward the close of the scene, and directed some of the last details of the butchery.

The five infantry corps that formed the attacking force, according to the data already referred to, amounted to about twenty-five hundred men. The number of Mexican wounded according to various accounts, largely exceeded that of the killed; and the estimates made of both by intelligent men who were in the action, and whose candor I think could be relied on, rated their loss at from one hundred and fifty to two hundred killed, and from three to four hundred wounded. The real loss of the assailants in killed and wounded probably did not differ much from five hundred men. Gen. Bruchburn was of opinion that

*It is a fact not often remembered, that Travis and his men died under the Mexican Federal flag of 1824, instead of the "Lone Star," although the independence of Texas, unknown to them, had been declared four days before. They died for a Republic whose existence they never knew.

three hundred men in the action were lost to the service counting with the killed those who died of wounds or were permanently disabled. This agrees with the other most reliable estimates. Now, if five hundred men or more were bullet-stricken in half an hour by one hundred and eighty or less, it was a rapidity of bloodshed almost unexampled, and needs no exaggeration.

Of the foregoing details which do not refer to documentary authority, I obtained many from Gen. Bradburn, who arrived at San Antonio a few days after the action, and gathered them from officers who were in it. A few I had through a friend from General Amador. Others again I received from three intelligent sergeants, who were men of fair education and I think truthful. One of them, Serg. Becero, of the battalion of Matamoras, who was captured at San Jacinto, was for several years my servant in Texas. From men of their class I could generally get more candid statements as to loss and other matters than from commissioned officers. I have also gathered some minor particulars from local tradition preserved among the residents of this town. When most of the details thus learned were acquired I had not seen the locality; and hence I have to locate some of the occurrences by inference; which I have done carefully and I think correctly.

The stranger will naturally inquire, "Where lie the heroes of the Alamo?" and Texas can only reply by a silent blush. A few hours after the action, the bodies of the slaughtered garrison were gathered up by the victors, laid in three piles, mingled with fuel, and burned. On the 25th of February, near a year after, their bones and ashes were collected, placed in a coffin, and interred with due solemnity, and with military honors, by Colonel Seguin and his command. The place of burial was in what was then a peach orchard outside the town a few hundred yards from the Alamo. It is now a large inclosed lot in the midst of the Alamo suburb.

"It was on the night Gen. Houston reached Gonzales," says Yoakum, "that two Mexicans brought the first news of the fall of the Alamo, and the death of its defenders. The scene produced in the town by these sad tidings can not be described. At least a dozen women with their children, in that place alone, had thus been left widows and orphans. In fact, there was scarcely a family in the town but had to mourn the loss of one or more of its members. 'For four-and-twenty hours,' says Capt. Handy, 'after the news reached us, not a sound was heard, save the wild shrieks of the women, and the heart-rending screams of their fatherless children. Little groups of men might be seen in various corners of the town, brooding over the past, and speculating of the future; but they scarcely spoke above a whisper. The public and private grief was alike heavy. It sank deep into the heart of the rudest soldier.' To soften as much as possible the unhappy effect of the intelligence, Houston caused the two Mexicans to be arrested and kept under guard, as spies."

In the Comanche war of 1840, a severe fight occurred in the town of San Antonio, between a company of Texans and a party of Comanche chiefs, who had come in to make a treaty, in which the latter were all killed. The event is thus given in Yoakum's History:

The Comanches had made frequent forays into the Texan settlements, and among other outrages, had carried off several captives. In February, 1840, a few of these Indians came to San Antonio, for the purpose of making a treaty of peace with Texas. They were told by the commissioners to bring in the thirteen white captives they had, and peace would be granted; they promised that, at the next full moon, they would do so. The commissioners repaired to Bexar to meet them; and on the 19th of March, a little after the appointed time, the Indians, sixty-five in all, including men, women and children, came in, bringing, however, but one of the captives. Twelve chiefs met the commissioners in the treaty-house, and the question was put to them, "Where are the prisoners you promised to bring in to this talk?" They answered: "We brought the only one we had; the others are with other tribes." The little girl who had been brought in said this was utterly false, as she had seen the others at the Indian camp a few days before, and that they intended to bring in only one or two at a time, in order to extort for them the greater ransom. A pause ensued for some time in the council, when the same chief who had given the answer inquired how they liked it. No reply was made, but an order was dispatched to Capt. Howard to bring his company into the council room.

When the men had taken their position, the terms upon which peace would have been made, had they brought in the captives as they promised, were explained to the chiefs. They were also informed that they were prisoners, and would be detained until they sent the rest of their company for the captives, and brought them in.

As the commissioners were retiring from the room, one of the chiefs sprang to the door; and the sentinel there stationed, in attempting to prevent his escape, was stabbed by him with a knife. Captain Howard received a like wound. The remaining chiefs now rose, drew their knives, and prepared their bows and arrows, and the fight became general. The soldiers killed the whole of the chiefs engaged in the council. The warriors, not of the council, fought desperately in the yard; but the company under Captain Redd advancing, forced them to take shelter in a stone house, whither they were pursued and cut down. A party of the savages at last made their way to the opposite side of the river, but were pursued, and all killed, except a renegade Mexican, who was permitted to escape. All the warriors, thirty-two in number, together with three women and two children, were killed. Twenty-seven women and children were made prisoners. In this remarkable fight none escaped except the Mexican. The Texans had seven killed and eight wounded.

The Comanches hung about San Antonio in small parties, brooding over their loss. The killing of so many of their chiefs was a severe stroke, and they were divided on the question of war. At length they retired to their homes, on the upper branches of the Texan rivers, to make serious preparations for a terrible visitation on the white settlements.*



Eastern view of the Steamboat Landing, at Houston.

The view shows the appearance of the Landing, etc., on the right bank of the Buffalo Bayou, as it is approached from the east. Some of the Cotton Warehouses appear on the left. In the distance, on the opposite bank of the stream, the Texas Central Railroad commences.

HOUSTON, the county seat for Harris county, and formerly the state capital, is situated on the Buffalo Bayou, at the head of steamboat navigation, 50

*After this the Texans carried on a war of extermination. In an excursion against one of the Comanche villages in the ensuing fall, under Col. John H. Moore, "the bodies of men, women, and children, were seen on every hand, dead, wounded and dying."

miles by railroad, and 80 by water from Galveston, and about 160 from Austin, the capital. Most of the houses and stores at present are of wood, and of simple construction; the merchant shops are furnished with a rich



ANCIENT CAPITOL.

The engraving is from a drawing of the first State House in Texas. It is situated on the main street of Houston, and is now occupied as a public house, known as the "Old Capitol Hotel." The addition at the end was formerly of but one story, and was used as a committee room.

variety of goods, and the place has a large and lucrative trade with the interior of the state. Various railroads are now being constructed, which center at this place and will add to its wealth and importance. The bayou at the landing is but about 100 ft. in breadth, although of sufficient depth to float large steamboats. The elevated banks, with their trees and foliage

gives this point quite a picturesque appearance. The town is surrounded by a fertile country, and is the greatest cotton mart in the state. Population about 6,000.

Houston was laid out by John K. and A. C. Allen, and the settlement was commenced in 1836. The first building was a log house belonging to Col. Benj. Fort Smith, near the site of the present postoffice, about 200 yards from the bayou. The first framed building stood on the east side of Main-street; the upper story was used as a theater, the lower part for a drinking saloon. It has been moved to the west side of the street, and is now used by Mr. W. R. Wilson as a hardware store. Dr. J. L. Bryan was the first who passed a wagon over the bayou: this was accomplished by means of two canoes or "dug-outs," the wheels on one side of the wagon were placed in one of the boats, and the opposite wheels in the other. The first clergymen in the place were Mr. Hall, Presbyterian; Mr. Fowler, Methodist; and Mr. Woodruff, Baptist. The first hotel was kept in Col. Smith's log house.

GOLIAD, the capital of Goliad county, is on the right bank of the San Antonio, 100 miles below the town of San Antonio, and has about 600 inhabitants. It was anciently called La Bahia, and was the seat of a mission establishment. It is one of the oldest towns in Texas, and was formerly a point of much importance: its name implies a *place of strength*. Its fortifications were immense, and considered by the Spaniards as impregnable: they are still in existence, though mostly in ruins. Amid these ruins stands the old church, on the brow of the hill, in tolerable preservation. In this church and fortifications, shown in the view, Fannin's men were confined previous to their massacre, and the wounded, who were killed apart from their companions, were executed within the works.

Like all the old places in Texas, Goliad abounds in historical incidents.

The one by which it has become famous is that of "*Fannin's Massacre*," the most terrible event in the annals of the Texan war of independence.

"In 1836, while Santa Anna was concentrating his forces at San Antonio de



RUINS AT GOLIAD.

Old Church and Fortification, the scene of Fannin's Massacre.

Bexar, another division of the forces under Gen. Urrea, proceeded along the line of the coast. Col. Fannin, then at Goliad, sent twenty-eight men about twenty-five miles distant, under Captain King, to remove some families to a place of safety. They lost their way in the prairie, and were

taken prisoners and shot by Urrea. Col. Fannin having received no tidings from King, sent out Col. Ward with a larger detachment, who falling in with the enemy, had two engagements with him; in the last, overwhelmed by numbers, he was obliged to surrender. On the 18th of March, Fannin's force being reduced to two hundred and seventy-five men, he left Goliad and commenced retreating toward Victoria; and on that afternoon was overtaken on a prairie and surrounded by the Mexican infantry, and some Indian allies. The Texans, arranging themselves in a hollow square, successfully repelled all charges. At dusk, the Indians, by command of Urrea, threw themselves upon the ground, and under cover of the tall grass, crawled up and poured a destructive fire upon the Texans. As soon as it was sufficiently dark to discern the flashes of their guns, the Texans soon picked them off and drove them back. The Mexicans withdrew and encamped for the night, having lost a large number of men. The Texan loss was seven killed and about sixty wounded. The Texans threw up a breastwork during the night; but when morning dawned, discovered that their labor had been useless, for Urrea was joined by five hundred fresh troops with artillery. Upon this, Fannin seeing the inutility of farther resistance against an army ten times his superior, surrendered on condition that they should be treated as prisoners of war." The terms, in substance, were as follows, which, with the remainder of the narrative, we extract from Yoakum's History:

"1. That the Texans should be received and treated as prisoners of war, according to the usages of the most civilized nations. 2. That private property should be respected and restored; but that the side-arms of the officers should be given up. 3. That the men should be sent to Copano, and thence, in eight days, to the United States, or so soon thereafter as vessels could be procured to take them. 4. That the officers should be paroled, and returned to the United States in like manner. Gen. Urrea immediately sent Col. Holzinger and other officers to consummate the agreement. It was reduced to writing in both the English and Spanish languages, read over two or three times, signed, and the writings exchanged in "the most formal and solemn manner."

The Texans immediately piled their arms, and such of them as were able to march were hurried off to Goliad, where they arrived at sunset on the same day (the 20th). The wounded, among whom was Col. Fannin, did not reach the place till the 23d. At Goliad the prisoners were crowded into the old church, with no other food than a scanty pittance of beef, without bread or salt.

On the 23d. Col. Fannin and Col. Holzinger proceeded to Copano, to ascertain if a vessel could be procured to convey the Texans to the United States; but the vessel they expected to obtain had already left that port. They did not return till the 26th. On the 23d. Maj. Miller, with eighty Texan volunteers, who had just landed at Copano, were taken prisoners and brought into Goliad by Col. Vara.

Again, on the 25th, Col. Ward and his men, captured by Urrea, as has already been stated, were brought in.

The evening of the 26th passed off pleasantly enough. Col. Fannin was entertaining his friends with the prospect of returning to the United States; and some of the young men, who could perform well on the flute, were playing "HOME, SWEET HOME." How happy we are that the veil of the future is suspended before us! At seven o'clock that night, an order, brought by an extraordinary courier from Santa Anna, required *the prisoners to be shot!* Detailed regulations were sent as to the mode of executing this cold-blooded and atrocious order. Col. Portilla, the commandant of the place, did not long hesitate in its execution. He had four hundred and forty-five prisoners under his charge. Eighty of these brought from Copano, having just landed, and who as yet had done no fighting, were considered as not within the scope of the order, and for the time were excused. The services of four of the Texan physicians—that is, Drs. Joseph H. Bernard, Field, Hall, and Shackelford—being needed to take care of the Mexican wounded, their lives were spared. So likewise were four others, who were assistants in the hospital, Messrs. Bills, Griffin, Smith and Skerlock.

At dawn of day, on Palm Sunday, March 27th, the Texans were awakened by a Mexican officer, who said he wished them to form a line, that they might be counted. The men were marched out in separate divisions, under different pretexes. Some were told that they were to be taken to Copano, in order to be sent home; others that they were going out to slaughter beeves; and others, again, that they were being removed to make room in the fort for Santa Anna. Dr. Shackelford, who had been invited by Col. Guerrier to his tent, about a hundred yards south-eastwardly from the fort, says: 'In about half an hour, we heard the report of a volley of small-arms, toward the river, and to the east of the fort. I immediately inquired the cause of the firing, and was assured by the officer that 'he did not know, but supposed it was the guard firing off their guns.' In about fifteen or twenty minutes thereafter, another such volley was fired, directly south of us, and in front. At the same time I could distinguish the heads of some of the men through the boughs of some peach trees, and could hear their screams. It was then, for the first time, the awful conviction seized upon our minds that *treachery and murder* had begun their work! Shortly afterward, Col. Guerrier appeared at the mouth of the tent. I asked him if it could be possible they were murdering our men. He replied that 'it was so; but he had not given the order, neither had he executed it.'

In about an hour more, the wounded left in the barracks, were dragged out into the fort yard and butchered. Col. Fannin was the last to suffer. When informed of his fate, he met it like a soldier. He handed his watch to the officer whose business it was to murder him, and requested him to leave him shot in the *breast* and not in the *head*, and likewise to see that his remains should be decently buried. These natural and proper requirements the officer promised should be fulfilled, but, with that perfidy which is so prominent a characteristic of the Mexican race, he failed to do either! Fannin seated himself in a chair, tied the handkerchief over his eyes, and bared his bosom to receive the fire of the soldiers.

As the different divisions were brought to the place of execution, they were ordered to sit down with their backs to the guard. In one instance, 'young Fennor rose on his feet, and exclaimed, '*Boys they are going to kill us—die with your faces to them, like men!*' At the same time, two other young men, flourishing their caps over their heads, shouted at the top of their voices, '*Hurrah for Texas!*'

Many attempted to escape; but the most of those who survived the first fire were cut down by the pursuing cavalry, or afterward shot. It is believed that, in all twenty-seven* of those who were marched out to be slaughtered made their

* Of the twenty-seven who escaped, probably not six are, at this lapse of time, living. One of the survivors, Mr. Herman Ehrenberg, now (1861) of Arizona, related to us his manner of escape. He was at the time a mere youth, and was at the end of his company when the order was given to fire. Unhurt by the discharge, he sprang and ran for the river bank, when he received a sabre cut from a Mexican officer—the evidence of the

escape; leaving three hundred and thirty who suffered death on that Sunday morning."

Mr. S. H. B., now a well known merchant of Cincinnati, was at the time a lad of 18 years of age, and the private secretary of Major Miller. From his lips we have gathered these details:

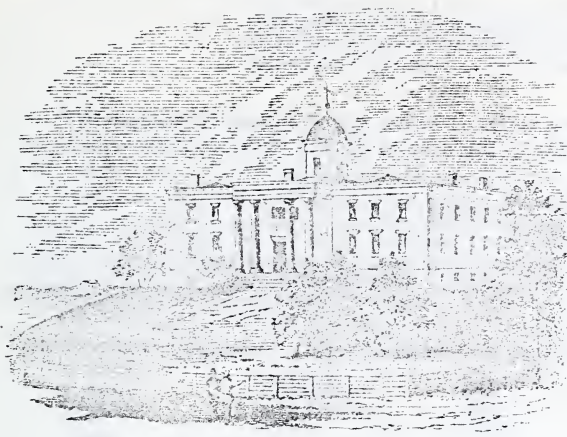
Miller's command was not included in the massacre. We were saved by the interference of the wife of Alvarez, the Mexican officer by whom we were taken: she was a most noble woman, who persuaded her husband to spare us. Santa Anna subsequently dispatched orders for *our* execution, but we had so happily won the esteem of the Mexican officers that they united in a petition in our behalf to Santa Anna. In the meantime occurred the victory of San Jacinto, and Santa Anna was himself a prisoner. Our men were soon released, but the major and myself were conducted to Matamoras, and after an imprisonment of three months escaped from them on horseback, in the disguise of Mexican officers, and in this way passed through the ranks of several of their corps on their march thither.

The morning of the massacre was slightly foggy. Without understanding wherefore, we, of Miller's command, were ordered to tie a *white* band around our left arms; some of us tore pieces from our shirts for that purpose. This was to distinguish us from Fannin's men, who alone were doomed. We were conducted out to a peach and fig grove, in front of the church, and in sight of two of the three parties into which Fannin's men were divided: the third being out of view behind the church, near the river bank. When the firing began, boy as I was, I was impressed by the varied expressions in the faces of our men, thus made unexpected witnesses of the awful tragedy. Surprise, horror, grief and revenge were depicted in the most vivid lines. At first all were startled: some became at once horror-stricken, others wept in silent agony, still others laughed in their passion, swore, clinched their teeth, and looked like demons. Now, at the lapse of more than a quarter of a century, I can never think or talk of that dreadful scene with any degree of composure. Some of the poor fellows attempted to escape, and of course outrun the Mexicans: but then the cavalry! Just as one of these men of Fannin's had got fairly clear of his pursuers, a mounted Mexican from close by me at once started on the chase, and catching up with him, cut him down. Never did I so want to hamstring a horse. Those not killed outright, were deliberately butchered by the Mexicans, men and women, and stripped. This over, some of them, even the women, as they passed by us on their return laden with plunder, insulted us by the grossest vulgarities, shook their fists in our faces, swearing in taunting tones and the vilest words—"Your turn—tomorrow!"

The stripped bodies of the slain were collected and placed in piles. Those of the wounded who had been massacred at the fort, Fannin's among the rest, were chucked stark naked into carts, like so many dead hogs, carried out and dumped on top of the others. Brush was then piled over the whole and set on fire. It took several days' successive burnings to consume them. Nightly the prairie wolves gathered to feast on the half roasted bodies, and kept up their howlings through all the long hours, and as the day dawned their execrable screams increased, in rage at being thus driven by the morning light from their horrid banquet!

wound he carries to this day, and just where a brave man likes it, in the *forehead*. Ehrenberg thereupon grappled and wrested his sword from him, and then continued his flight, dashed into the river, and swimming across, escaped. Some years since a narrative of his Texan campaign adventures was published in Germany—at Leipzig, we think—whither the MS. was sent, though the author never saw a copy of the printed book. In a private letter before us, he gives an outline which illustrates the life of adventure, of which our country furnishes so many examples. "In Texas I belonged to the New Orleans Grays—was the third man (boy) who signed his name for Texas as a volunteer, in the Arcade building. Was at the storming of San Antonio—Fannin's—and afterward twice prisoner with the Mexicans. Went over the Rocky Mountains to Washington and Oregon in 1844-'45 and '46 in the Sandwich Islands, and numerous groups in the southern hemisphere, and South America—returned to California—'46-'47 west coast of Mexico—'48-'49, California—'50, discovered the mouth of Klamath River and the *Gold Bluff*, and the *first* gold on the seashore. Consequent great excitement in California, notwithstanding my reports against it—'51, went to Sonora and Arizona, and there ever since."

AUSTIN, named from the founder of Texas, is on the left bank of the Colorado, about 255 miles N.W. from Galveston, and 1,420 from Washington. It is built on a plain, elevated some 30 or 40 feet above the level of



THE CAPITOL OF TEXAS, AT AUSTIN.

the river. Population about 4,500. The capitol building crowns an eminence at the head of Congress Avenue, the main street of Austin. It is of the Ionic order of architecture, 90 feet deep by 145 feet in front: the entire height, from the foundation to the top of the dome, is 101 feet. The building is constructed of a soft white color, at a cost of \$150,000.

The governor's house is a brick edifice, and on an eminence about 300 yards from the capitol. The treasury department and the general land office are fine buildings. Austin has been sometimes mistaken by strangers for San Felipe De Austin, and which of late years has simply been called San Felipe.

"The old capitol in Austin was a rather rudely constructed frame building, and was for a year or two the place of session for the congress of the Republic of Texas. Its walls have reverberated to the eloquent appeals of many of the most patriotic and gifted sons of Texas. The convention which formed our present state constitution met in it, July 4, 1845. There the legislature continued to convene until the new capitol was finished. Since then it has been used for various purposes. It is gone now—torn down."

One by one the vestiges of our former nationality disappear. In the old Texan these things produce a sorrowful impression, despite the conviction that they are the results of time and progress. He can not forget the day when this humble house was the capitol of a nation few in number, but rich in the elements of patriotism—blindly and ardently devoted to the country, and ever ready with stout hands and brave hearts to defend it. His mind will revert to old times—old scenes and old men—to the period when every citizen was, perforce, a soldier, and all felt and acted as a band of brothers. And in no instance was the feeling more evident than on the 19th of February, 1846. When President Anson Jones, on the steps of that same old house, in an impressive and touching address, announced the change of government—the annexation of Texas to the Union; and concluded by saying, '*The Republic of Texas is no more!*' there was a smothering of sensations which all felt, yet few desired to display in public. Broad chests heaved—strong hands were clinched, and tears were flowing down cheeks where they had been strangers for long, long years. It was a moment of deep, intense emotion. Had any one doubted the affection of Texans for the beautiful land of their adoption, this scene would have removed all skepticism.

The old house is gone—it has disappeared before the resistless wave of progress—it is numbered with the things that were; yet there are loyal hearts which will beat faster when they think of the bygone days when it was the capitol of a fear-

less people, who loved their own sunny land for itself alone, and were always in readiness to sacrifice property and life to sustain its honor and preserve its integrity. Linked as it is with our past history—with the brief, glorious, and brilliant career of the "Lone Star Republic," they can not think of it without indorsing the sentiment of the immortal Burns:

'Still o'er these scenes my memory wakes
And fondly broods with miser-care;
Time but the impression deeper makes,
As streams their channels deeper wear.'—[Times.

The monument erected to the memory of the heroes of the Alamo at the capital, is ten feet high, and is constructed of stones taken from the ruins of the Alamo. The following are the inscriptions:

North front—To the God of the fearless and free is dedicated this ALTAR, made from the ruins of the ALAMO. March 6, 1836, A.D.—CROCKETT. *West front*—Blood of Heroes hath stained me. Let the stones of the ALAMO speak that their immolation be not forgotten, March 6, 1836, A.D.—BOWMAN. *South front*—Be they enrolled with Leonidas in the host of the MIGHTY DEAD. March 6, 1836, A.D.—TEAVIS. *East front*—THERMOPYLÆ had her messenger of defeat, but the Alamo had none. March 6, 1836, A.D.—BOWIE.

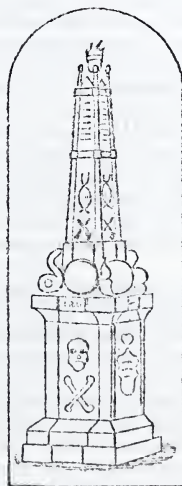
The following names of those who fell are inscribed on the north and south sides of the monument. The list comprises nearly all of the slain:

M. Autry,
R. Allen,
M. Andrews,
Ayres,
J. Baker,
Burus,
Bailey,
J. Beard,
Bailesa,
Bouru,
R. Cunningham,
J. Clark,
J. Cause,
Cloud,
S. Crawford,
Cary,
W. Cummings,
R. Crossan,
Cockran,
G. W. Cottle,
J. Dust,
J. Dillard,
A. Dickinson,
C. Despalier,
L. Lavall,
J. C. Day,
J. Dickens,
Devault,
W. Dearduff,
J. Ewing,
T. R. Evans,
D. Floyd,
J. Flanders,
W. Fishbaugh,
Forsyth,
G. Fuza,
J. C. Goodrich,
J. George,
J. Gaston,
J. C. Garrett,
W. Mills,
Michelson,
E. T. Mitchell,
E. Melton,
McGregor,
T. Miller,
J. McCoy,
E. Morton,
R. Musselman,
Millson,
R. B. Moore,
W. Marshall,
Moore,

Anderson,
W. Blazely,
J. B. Bowman,
Baker,

S. C. Blair,
Blair,
Brown,
Bowin,

Valentine,
J. J. Raugh,
Burnell,
Butler,
C. Grimes,
Gwin,
J. E. Garwin,
Gillmore,
Hutchason,
S. Holloway,
Harrison,
Hieskell,
J. Hayes,
Horrell,
Harris,
Hawkins,
J. Holland,
W. Hersie,
Ingram,
John,
J. Jones,
L. Johnson,
C. B. Jamison,
W. Johnson,
T. Jackson,
D. Jackson,
Jackson,
G. Kemble,
A. Kent,
W. King,
Kenney,
J. Kenny,
Lewis,
W. Linn,
Wm. Lightfoot,
J. Louly,
Lanio,
W. Lightfoot,
G. W. Linn,
Lewis,
A. Smith,
Simpson,
R. Star,
Starn,
N. Sutherland,
W. Summers,
J. Summerline,
Thompson,
Tondinson,
E. Taylor,
G. Taylor,
J. Taylor,
W. Taylor.



ALAMO MONUMENT.

R. McKenny,
McCallerty,
J. McGee,
G. W. Main,
M. Query,
C. Nelson,
J. Nolan,
Nelson,
Wm. G. Nelson,
C. Ostiner,
Pelone C. Parker,
N. Pollard,
G. Puggan,

S. Robinson,
Roddenson,
N. Rough,
Ruk,
Robbins,
W. Smith,
Sears,
C. Smith,
Stockton,
Stewart,
A. Smith,
J. C. Smith,
Sewall,

Drum.

Thornton,
Thomas,
J. M. Thurston,
Valentino,
Williamson,

D. Wilson,
Walsh,
Washington,
W. Wells,
C. Wright,

R. White,
J. Washington,
T. Waters,
Warnell,
J. White,

D. Wilson,
J. Wilson,
A. Wolf,
L. J. Wilson,
Warner.

New Braunfels is the largest town of the German settlers in Texas. It is on the Gaudaloupe in the south-western part of the state, 32 miles north-east from San Antonio, and is the capital of Gaudaloupe county. Population about 2,000.

It is in this section of Texas that the business of cattle raising, horse and sheep breeding is extensively carried on. The widely known sheep farm or *ranche* of Geo. W. Kendall, Esq., is just in the outskirts of New Braunfels, under the care of a Scotch head shepherd, bred to the business on the Cheviot Hills, on the banks of the Tweed: all extra labor is done by Germans from the town. Mr. Kendall, after years of experience, says that this industry "in Texas promises to be as profitable as any followed by man since the days of Abraham."

A recent traveler gives this description of New Braunfels, or as the Germans spell it, *Neu-Braunfels*:

The main street of the town, which we soon entered upon, was very wide—three times as wide, in effect, as Broadway in New York. The houses, with which it was thickly lined on each side for a mile, were small, low cottages, of no pretensions to elegance, yet generally looking neat and comfortable. Many were furnished with verandahs and gardens, and the greater part were either stuccoed or painted. There were many workshops of mechanics and small stores, with signs oftener in English than in German; and bare-headed women, and men in caps and short jackets, with pendent pipes, were everywhere seen at work.

The citizens are, however, nearly all men of very small capital. Of the original settlers scarcely any now remain, and their houses and lands are occupied by more recent emigrants. Those who have left have made enough money during their residence to enable them to buy *farmas* or cattle-ranches in the mountains, to which they have removed. Half the men now residing in Neu-Braunfels and its vicinity, are probably agricultural laborers, or farmers, who themselves follow the plow. The majority of the latter do not, I think, own more than ten acres of land each. Within the town itself, there are a large number of master-mechanics, most of whom employ several workmen. Among them are seven wagon-makers, and their wagons are better made than the American.

A weekly newspaper is published—the *Neu-Braunfels Zeitung*. It is a paper of much higher character than most of the German American papers, edited by the naturalist Lindheimer. There are ten or twelve stores and small tradesmen's shops, two or three apothecaries, and as many physicians, lawyers and clergymen.

There are several organizations among the people which indicate an excellent spirit of social improvement: an Agricultural Society, a Mechanics' Institute, a Harmonie Society, a Society for Political Debates, and a "Turners'" Society. A horticultural club has expended \$1,200 in one year in introducing trees and plants. These associations are the evidence of an active intellectual life, and desire for knowledge and improvement among the masses of the people.

In Neu-Braunfels and the surrounding German hamlets, there are five free schools for elementary education, one exclusive Roman Catholic school, a town free school of higher grade, and a private classical school. In all of these schools English is taught with German.

Sunday was observed more thoroughly as a day of rest from labor than we had seen in any town of Texas. The stores, except one kept by a New Englander, were closed during the day. The people who appeared in the streets were well dressed, quiet and orderly. We saw no drunkenness. In the evening there were amusements, among them a ball, which the Lutheran pastor was expected to attend. The health of the town is good. For several years there has been no epidemic illness. The greater part of those of whom I made inquiry assured me their health

had been better here than in Germany. The Lutheran clergyman informed us that he had registered but seven deaths, during the year, among his congregation.

In the town, each house has its garden-plot, and over the neighborhood are scattered hundreds of small farms. Owing to the low price of corn, most of these had been cultivated, partly, in cotton during the year before our visit. The result was a total crop of eight hundred bales, which, at Galveston, brought from one to two cents a pound more than that produced by slaves, owing to the more careful handling of white and personally interested labor; but the expense of hauling cotton to the coast prevents any large profits at this distance. A railroad or a local manufactory must precede any extensive cultivation of cotton, while corn, which requires much less labor, can find a market at a fair price. With water-power and hands upon the spot, it certainly seems an unnatural waste of labor to carry the staple to Massachusetts to be spun, but such, for want of local capital is now the course of trade.

In spite of the common assertion, that only blacks can endure the heat of southern labor, the production of cotton, by whites alone, is by no means rare. There are very many, both of those who work their own small cotton farms and of those who work with their few negroes, day after day in the field. But there is hardly in the south another as striking an instance of pure free-labor upon cotton-fields, as this of the Germans. Their cotton goes in one body to market, entirely separate from the great mass exported, and from their peculiar style of settlement, it may be even considered as the product of one large plantation, worked by white hands, and divided into well marked annual tasks.

The number of Germans in Texas is about 45,000, mostly in the southwestern section, where they are generally in communities by themselves, apart from the Americans, managing "after republican forms their own little affairs." The writer whose description of New Braunfels we have presented is Mr. Fred. L. Olmsted. In his book, "A Journey through Texas, or a Saddle Trip on the South-western Frontier," he has this history of the German settlements in Texas:

The most accurate and full published account of these German settlements is the report of a lecture, by Frederick Kapp, upon the Germans in Texas. From this, and from our notes of oral statements on the spot, I will concisely give the story. The experiment was a most interesting one; that of using *associated capital* for the transportation and settlement of emigrants on a large scale; in fact, the removal, in organized bodies, of the poor of an old country to the virgin soil of a new.

In the year 1842, among many schemes evolved in Germany by the social stir of the time, and patronized by certain princes, from motives of policy, was one of real promise. It was an association, of which Count Castel was the head, for the diminution of pauperism by the organized assistance and protection of emigrants. At this time, annexation being already almost a certainty, speculators, who represented the owners of large tracts of Texas land, appeared in Germany, with glowing accounts of their cheapness and richness. They succeeded in gaining the attention of this association, whose leaders were pleased with the isolated situation, as offering a more tangible and durable connection with their emigrants, and opening a new source of wealth and possible power. A German dependency or new Teutonic nation might result. Palmerston, it is said, encouraged the idea,* the Texan political leaders then coquetting with an English Protectorate, to induce more rapid advances on the part of the United States.

*According to the work of Mr. Siemering upon the Germans in Texas, this encouragement went so far as to take the form of a contract between the Verein and the British government. By it the former agreed to place 10,000 families in Texas; the latter to furnish armed protection to the colony. A new market with indefinite capacities; a new source of cotton; opposition to slavery and to the extension of the area of the United States; such were the sufficient motives for England. Prince Leiningen was the half-brother of the Queen of England. Prince Solms was an intimate friend of Prince Albert, with whom he was educated at Bonn. Copies of the correspondence still exist.

In 1843, an agent of the association, Count Waldeck, visited Texas, but effected nothing else than to secure for himself a slave plantation, not far from the coast. He was dismissed. The following year the association commenced active operations. It obtained, under the title of the Mainzer Adels Verein, a charter from the Duke of Nassau, who assumed the protectorate. It had the Prince Leiningen as president; Count Castel as director; Prince Frederick of Prussia, the Duke of Coburg-Gotha, and some thirty other princes and nobles as associated members. A plan, inviting emigrants, was published, offering each adult, subscribing \$120, a free passage and forty acres of land; a family, subscribing \$240, a free passage and eighty acres. The association undertook to provide log houses, stock and tools at fair prices, and to construct public buildings and roads for the settlements.

Prince Solms, of Braunfels, was appointed General Commissioner and proceeded to Texas. Had he procured from the state legislature a direct grant of land for the colony, as he might have done, all would have been well. But, most unfortunately, the association was induced, without sufficient examination, to buy a grant of the previous year. It was held by Fisher and Miller, and the tract was described by them as a second paradise. In reality, it lay in the heart of a savage country, hundreds of miles beyond the remotest settlement, between the Upper Colorado and the great desert plains, a region, to this day, almost uninhabited. This wretched mistake was the ruin of the whole enterprise. The association lost its money and its character, and carried many emigrants only to beggary and a miserable death.

In the course of the year, 180 subscribers were obtained, who landed with their families in the autumn upon the coast of Texas, and marched toward their promised lands, with Prince Solms at their head. Finding the whole country a wilderness, and being harassed by the attacks of Indians, on reaching the union of the Comal with the Guadalupe, they became disheartened, and there Prince Solms, following the good advice of a naturalist of the company, Mr. Lindheimer, encamped, and laid out the present town of Neu-Braunfels.

This settlement, receiving aid from home while it was needed, was a success, in spite of the prince, who appears to have been an amiable fool, aping, among the log cabins, the nonsense of mediæval courts. In the course of a year he was laughed out of the country. He was succeeded by C. Von Meusebach, who proved at least much better adapted to the work. Had he not been reduced to inaction by home routine, and a want of funds, the misery that followed might, perhaps, have been prevented.

In the course of the next year, 1845, more than 2,000 families joined the association. The capital which had been sufficient for its first effort was totally inadequate to an undertaking of this magnitude. These poor people sailed from Germany, in the fall of this year, and were landed in the winter and early spring, on the flat coast of the gulf, to the number of 5,200. Annexation had now taken place, and the war with Mexico was beginning. The country had been stripped of provisions, and of the means of transportation, by the army. Neither food nor shelter had been provided by the association. The consequences may be imagined. The detail is too horrible. The mass remained for months encamped in sand-holes, huts, or tents: the only food procurable was beef. The summer heats bred pestilence.

The world has hardly record of such suffering. Unprovided with food or shelter they perished like sheep. Human nature could not endure it. Human beings became brutes. "Your child is dying." "What do I care?" Old parents were hurried into the ground before the breath of life had left them. The Americans who saw the stragglers thought a new race of savages was come. Haggard and desperate, they roved inland by twos and threes, beyond all law or religion. Many of the survivors reached the German settlements; many settled as laborers in American towns. With some of them, Meusebach founded another town—Fredericksburg—higher up than Braunfels. He also explored the Fisher grant and converted the surrounding Indians, from enemies, into good-natured associates.

"It is but justice," says Mr. Kapp, "to throw the light of truth upon all this misery. The members of the association, although well meaning, did not understand what they were about to do. They fancied that their *high protection*, alone,

was sufficient to make all right. They had not the remotest idea of the toil and hardship of settling a new country. They permitted themselves to be humbugged by speculators and adventurers; they entered into ruinous bargains, and had not even funds enough to take the smallest number of those whom they had induced to join them to the place of settlement. When money was most wanted, they failed to send it, either from mistrust or neglect. To perform the obligation imposed by the agreement with Fisher, they induced the emigration to Texas by the most enchanting and exaggerated statements. The least that even the less sanguine ones expected, was, to find parrots rocking on the boughs, and monkeys playing on the palm-trees."

This condemnation seems to fall justly. Such was the unhappy beginning. But the wretchedness is already forgotten. Things soon mended. The soil, climate, and other realities found, were genial and good, if not Elysian. Now, after seven years, I do not know a prettier picture of contented prosperity than we witnessed at Neu-Braunfels. A satisfied smile, in fact, beamed on almost every German face we saw in Texas.

Mr. Olmsted visited other German colonies besides Neu-Braunfels. Among these was Castroville, on the Medina, a stream that is "the very ideal of purity, running over a white limestone rock, that gives a peculiar brilliancy to its emerald waters." We farther quote:

Upon its bank stands Castroville—a village containing a colony of Alsatiens, who are proud here to call themselves Germans, but who speak French, or a mixture of French and German. The cottages are scattered prettily, and there are two churches—the whole aspect being as far from Texas as possible. It might sit for the portrait of one of the poorer villages of the upper Rhone valley. Perhaps the most remarkable thing is the hotel, by M. Tarde, a two-story house, with double galleries, and the best inn we saw in the state. How delighted and astonished many a traveler must have been, on arriving from the plains at this first village, to find not only his dreams of white bread, sweetmeats and potatoes realized, but napkins, silver forks, and raddishes, French servants, French neatness, French furniture, delicious French beds, and the *Courier des Etats Unis*; and more, the lively and entertaining bourgeoisie.

Castroville was founded by Mr. Henry Castro, a gentleman of Portuguese origin, still resident in the town, under a colony-contract with the republic, which passed the legislature the 15th of February, 1842. The enterprise seems to have been under the special patronage of the Roman Church. Every colonist was a Catholic, and the first concern was the founding of the church edifice, the corner-stone of which was laid ten days after their arrival, with imposing ceremonies, by Bishop Odin, of Galveston. By the contract with the colonists, each person was to receive a town lot, and a piece of outlying land, as a farm. By the contract with the state, two thousand persons were to be introduced within two years. An extension of two years was granted in January, 1845. Mr. Castro was to receive a quantity of land equal to one half the whole taken by the colonists, to be located in alternate sections, with the state's reserve.

Seven hundred persons came first in seven ships. Assembling at San Antonio, the advance party started, in a body, for the Medina, on the 1st of September, 1844. One board building was carried in carts, and in it were housed the temporary provisions. The settlers built themselves huts of boughs and leaves, then set to work to make adobes for the construction of more permanent dwellings. Besides their bacon and meal, paid hunters provided abundant supplies of game, and within a fortnight a common garden, a church, and civil officers, chosen by ballot, were in being, and the colony was fully inaugurated. After struggling with some difficulties, it is now a decided success. The village itself contains about six hundred inhabitants, and the farms of the neighborhood several hundred more.

Leaving it, we ascended a high hill, and rode for fifteen miles through a more elevated and broken country, whose beauty is greatly increased by frequent groves of live-oak, elm, and hackberry. I have never seen more charming landscapes than some of the openings here presented. In the elements of turf and foliage, and their disposition, no English park scenery could surpass them. Beyond Castroville, there are two small villages, settlements of German colonists, mostly from the west bank of the Rhine; one, Quili, upon the Quili Creek, a branch of the Seco; the other, Dhamis, upon the Seco itself.

We stopped a night at Quili. It is a scattering village of ten or twelve habitations, one of them a substantial stone farm house, the others very picturesque, high-gabled, thatched-roofed, dormer-windowed, whitewashed cottages, usually artistically placed in the shade

of large dark live-oaks. The people seem to have been very successful in their venture, to judge by various little improvements they are making and the comforts they have accumulated.

The road beyond follows a low ridge which skirts the foot of the mountains, at a distance of two or three miles. The live-oaks become more stunted and rare, and the mesquite begins to predominate. Dhanis, which is distant some twenty-five miles from Castroville, presents, certainly, a most singular spectacle, upon the verge of the great American wilderness. It is like one of the smallest and meanest of European peasant hamlets. There are about twenty cottages and hovels, all built in much the same style, the walls being made of poles and logs placed together vertically, and made tight with clay mortar, the floors of beaten earth, the windows without glass, the roofs built so as to overhang the four sides, and deeply shade them, and covered with thatch of fine brown grass, laid in a peculiar manner, the ridge-line and apexes being ornamented with knots, tufts, crosses or weathercocks. There is an odd little church, and the people are rigid Catholics, the priest instructing the children. We spent the night at one of the cottages, and, though we slept on the floor, we were delighted with the table, which was spread with venison, wheat-bread, eggs, milk, butter, cheese, and crisp salad.

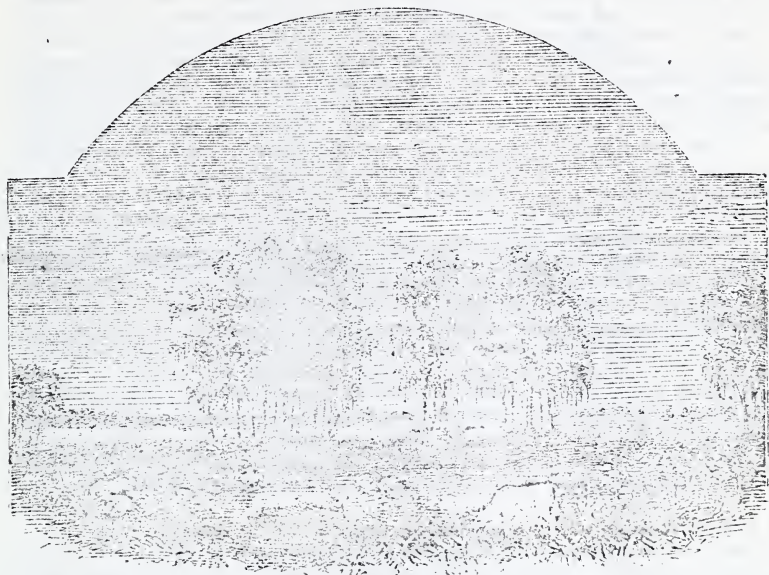
This was a second colony of Mr. Castro, established in 1846, but he here appears to have done little else than point out the spot and assign the lands to the colonists. During their first year, they told us, they suffered great hardships, the people being all very poor, and having no means of purchasing food except by the proceeds of their labor. Fortunately, there was then a military station in the vicinity, and the quartermaster gave them some employment in collecting forage. They arrived too late to plant corn to advantage, and not having had time to make sufficient fences, the deer eat the most of what did grow. The second year their crop was destroyed by a hail-storm. They lived on game and weeds for the most part during two years. Rattlesnakes were then common about the settlement, and were regularly hunted for as game. In some of the families, where there were many small children whose parents were unable to leave them to labor for wages, they formed a chief article of subsistence. Since their second year they had been remarkably prosperous in all respects. On their arrival here it was believed that the richest of the colonists was not worth twenty dollars; now the average wealth of each was estimated at eight hundred dollars. It consists mainly in cattle. They have been every year somewhat annoyed by Indians. The colonists had enjoyed better health than in Germany, doubtless, because, since their first struggles, they had a better supply of wholesome food. Cows were milked, I observed, at every house, night and morning; and a variety of vegetables was cultivated in their gardens.

The women of the settlement, by the absolute necessity of out-door work, had been rendered, it seemed to us, very coarse and masculine in character. All the ordinary labors of men, such as digging and herding cattle, were performed by them. We saw one of them lasso a wild looking mustang on the prairie, and vaulting on his back, canter away in search of her cows, without saddle or bridle. The condition of the children must be yet, for many years, barbarous and deplorable.

This is the last of the organized colonies of Texas that we had occasion to examine. We were strongly impressed with the actual results of these enterprises. Not one of them could be pronounced a failure, in spite of the most bungling and cruel mismanagement, and the severest reverses in execution. In the hands of men of sound sense and ability, backed by completely adequate capital, there is every reason, from their present condition, to believe that the general plan would have been found not only remunerative to every party concerned, but would have ranked as, in the highest degree, a beneficent acquisition of experience, inaugurating almost a new era for humanity. I am convinced that some similar plan is destined to be adopted for settling, at the least cost, and in the best manner, the vast territorial regions that still are awaiting the pioneer's fences, and that by its instrumentality, emigration may be elevated from a barbarizing scramble, to a civilized and worthy institution. For the trial, Texas yet offers the fairest and most attractive field in the Republic. She is accessible with the greatest ease and the least expense, from the crowded centers of the world, and has every natural quality that can attract population in greater measure than her northern rivals.

At the time of the declaration of Texan independence, March 2, 1836, war was raging on the frontiers of the country: Gen. Houston, the commander-in-chief of the Texan forces, was obliged to retire before the overwhelming Mexican army, under Santa Anna. The Mexicans arrived at Richmond, on the Brazos, on the 11th of April, and the 16th, having crossed the river,

Santa Anna reached Harrisburg, on Buffalo Bayou, six miles below the site of Houston. Houston with his men retired down the right bank of the Buffalo Bayou, and took a position about half a mile from the River San Jacinto. Santa Anna, having come in sight of the Texans, took up his position near the bank of the Bay of San Jacinto, about three fourths of a



Western view of the San Jacinto Battle Ground.

The Mexicans, previous to the battle, encamped in a line with the oak trees, which, with their wagons, formed a barricade. On the left, beyond the trees, is seen San Jacinto Bay. In the central part, beyond the trees, is a bayou, where many of the Mexicans were killed. In the direction of the open space, on the right, at the distance of eight or ten miles, is Col. Morgan's residence, at New Washington.

mile from the Texan camp, where he secured his left by a fortification about five feet high, constructed of packs and baggage, while his right extended to a skirt of timber near the banks of the bay. On the 20th some skirmishing took place, by an advance under Col. Sherman, but both parties retired to their encampments.

On the afternoon of the 21st of April, 1836, as the Mexicans showed no disposition to move from behind their breastworks, the Texans advanced to attack them. Col. Sherman formed the left wing, Gen. Houston and Col. Burleson, the center, and four companies of infantry, under Col. Millard, sustained the artillery, under Col. Hoekley, on the right; the cavalry, under Col. M. B. Lamar, on the extreme right, completed the Texan line. The two armies were now drawn up in complete order. Some accounts state the Mexican force to have been *eighteen hundred men*, while that of the Texans was but *seven hundred*.

The Texans, being somewhat masked by the timber, marched along a slight depression or valley in front of the Mexican camp. The decisive moment had now arrived. The charge was ordered, and the war cry sounded—"Remember the Alamo!" When these words reached the ears of the soldiers, a wild shout went up from the entire army, "THE ALAMO!" "THE ALAMO!" as they moved forward on the foe. When within about 600 yards the Mexicans opened their fire, and discharged some five rounds before a single shot was returned: but firing too high,

only a single Texan was injured until the first line of the Mexicans had been passed.

The Texans reserved their fire until they had reached a point some 70 yards from the line, and then some 300 Mexicans fell at the first discharge. Most of the Texans were armed with double barreled guns, and many of them had five or six pistols, with knives and tomahawks. They did not stop to reload, but converted their rifles into war clubs and struck at the heads of their foes. Along the breast-work there was but little firing—it was a desperate struggle, hand to hand. The Texans, when they had broken their rifles at the breech, threw them down and drew their pistols: they fired them once, and having no time to reload, hurled them against the head of their foes, and then, drawing their bowie-knives, literally cut their way through their ranks. The Mexican artillery was taken already loaded and primed, and turned and fired upon the Mexicans as they retreated.

When the Mexicans saw that the dreadful onset of their foe could not be resisted, they either attempted to fly and were stabbed in the back, or fell on their knees to plead for mercy, crying "*Me no Alamo!*" "*Me no Alamo!*" At one time about 400 Mexicans were inclosed by the army; they threw down their arms, knelt, and begged for their lives. The Texans who first arrived were disposed to spare them—stopping to cleanse their rifles; but the main body soon came up, and at once rushed upon them—beating their brains out with their rifles and tomahawks. The officers could not control their men, and when the cries, "*Remember the Alamo!*" and "*Remember Fannin!*" were heard, the fury of the Texans was beyond restraint. Many of the Mexicans sought to escape by rushing into the river, but they were fired upon and nearly all of them killed. According to Gen. Houston's report, 630 Mexicans were left dead upon the field; multitudes had perished in the morass and bayous; 280 were wounded, and there were nearly 800 prisoners, among whom was Santa Anna, the commander. Only seven are known to have escaped. The Texan loss was two killed and twenty-three wounded, six of whom afterward died.

The battle ground of San Jacinto is situated about a mile westward of the Lynchburg Hotel, at the steamboat landing, on the opposite or left bank of the River San Jacinto, at its junction with the Buffalo Bayou. The river here is about 200 yards wide, and the ferry across to the hotel is the one by which Santa Anna intended to cross in order to accomplish the feat of "*washing his hands in the Sabine*," by the first of May, as he gave out that he should do in his expedition against the Texans. The hotel here, kept by Mr. Frazer, is 20 miles from Houston, 15 from Harrisburg, and 50 from Galveston.

After Santa Anna had burnt Harrisburg, just before the battle of San Jacinto, he proceeded on toward the Sabine. Previous to his reaching the San Jacinto ferry, at Lynchburg, he learnt from his spies that the president and his cabinet were at New Washington, at Col. Morgan's residence, about ten miles below. He, therefore, left the ferry a mile or two to the left. His cavalry came so suddenly upon this place, that President Burnet, his family and cabinet had barely time to escape. As it was, he captured all Col. Morgan's servants, together with several citizens. The colonel himself was absent, being in command of the fort at Boliver Point, near Galveston. He had several stores at New Washington, in charge of his agents, in which there was a large quantity of provisions beside other merchandise. Finding such superior accommodations at Col. Morgan's expense, Santa Anna and his men tarried here several days, feasting themselves with the luxuries which the colonel's stores afforded. This diversion, as Santa Anna afterward acknowledged to Col. Morgan, was the cause of the ruin of the Mexicans. Had they crossed the ferry, at Lynchburg, at the time contemplated, Santa Anna would have found friends among the whites and Indians, and probably swept the whole country with fire and sword. While Santa Anna was feasting his army at New Washington, Gen. Houston crossed the Buffalo Bayou, and arranged his troops in battle array across his path to the ferry.

Santa Anna was taken the next day after the battle, about eight miles above the battle ground by Lieut. Sylvester, a volunteer from Cincinnati, who was hunting to obtain venison for his breakfast. Santa Anna had concealed himself in the high grass of the prairie, and on being discovered endeavored to escape, but was

ordered to stop. He was disguised as a countryman, and surrendered himself as a common soldier. Sylvester, however, suspected him to be an officer from the diamond breastpin on the fine linen shirt which he wore under his rustic dress. He ordered him to get behind him on his horse, and then rode with his prisoner to Houston's camp. He knew not his rank till he was passing the Mexican prisoners,



Soldier's Grave near San Jacinto Battle Ground.

The ground in front, at the eastern extremity of Houston's camp ground, is now used as a Cemetery. The battle field is seen in the distance descending on the left. Gen. Houston, on his advance, passed through the small thicket on the extreme left. The thicket on the extreme right, is the place where Col. Sherman had a skirmish with the enemy before the main battle.

when they exclaimed, as they lifted their caps, "*El Presidente!*" Santa Anna, being thus discovered, begged to be taken immediately to Gen. Houston. On coming into his presence, he found Houston wounded, sitting on the ground and reclining against a tree. Dropping on his knee, he kissed Houston's hand, and exclaimed, that he was born to no common destiny, for he had conquered "*the Napoleon of the South!*"

The 21st of April is celebrated annually, on Houston's camp ground, by military companies from Galveston, Houston, and other places: orations are delivered and the day honored somewhat in 4th of July style. Across the bayou from the camp ground is the residence of *Gen. Lorenzo de Zavalla*, who espoused the Texan cause during their struggles for independence. At the time of the battle, the persons friendly to the Mexicans, or "*tories*," as they were called, assembled on an elevation a short distance east of the Lynchburg Hotel, and from this spot, since called "*Tory Hill*," the conflict between the contending parties was easily seen. The bodies of the Mexican soldiers were left unburied, and the effluvia from their remains tainted the atmosphere for some time afterward. The hogs, it is said, fed on the bones of the slain. The house of Ex-President Burnet is about one and a half miles from the hotel. The Methodists have commenced holding their camp meetings in the grove on Houston's camp ground, being very convenient of access. Part of the ground is used as a cemetery, and some fifty interments have been made. Seven of the Texans, who were killed or died of their wounds, are interred here side by side. The first of the following inscriptions is in memory of a young man who fell in the battle:

Sacred to the memory of BENJAMIN PICE BRIGHAM, son of Major A. and Eliza S. Brigham, who departed this life April 21, 1836, aged 21 years.

In memory of Rev. WILLIAMSON WILLIAMS, of Texas Conference, a native of Virginia, died near Lynchburg, Sept. 18, 1855, in his 32d year. Erected by the Methodist Preachers.

The following list of officers, noncommissioned officers and privates, engaged in the battle of San Jacinto, is from the Texas Almanac for 1859:

Major-General SAM HOUSTON, Commander-in-Chief of the Texan forces.

Staff—John A. Wharton, adjt. gen.; Geo. W. Hackley, insp. gen.; John Forbes, com. gen.; William G. Cooke, asst. insp. gen.; A. Horton, Wm. H. Patton, Jas. Collinsworth, aids-de-camp; Jas. H. Perry, R. Eden Handy, R. M. Coleman, vol. aids; Hon. Thos. J. Rusk, secretary of war; Wm. Motley, M.D.

Medical Staff—Alex. Ewing, surg. 1st regt. artillery, acting surg. gen.; Davidson, surg. 1st regt. vol.; Fitzhugh, asst. surg. 1st regt. vol.; A. Jones, surg. 2d regt. vol.; Booker, surg. 2d regt. vol.; Labadie, surg.

Artillery Corps—J. C. Neil, lieutenant col., wounded on the 20th; J. N. Moreland, capt.; W. Stillwell, 1st lieutenant.

Privates—T. O. Harris, John M. Wade, Hugh M. Swift, Wm. A. Park, wounded on the 21st, Thos. Green, Clark M. Harmon, T. J. Robinson, M. Baxter, Thos. Plaster, 2d sergt.; Willis Collins, Benj. McCulloch, Richardson Scurry, 1st sergt.; Jos. White, Thomas N. B. Green, John Ferrill, Jos. Floyd, Alfred Benton, D. T. Dunham, T. C. Edwards, S. B. Bardwell, assisted by the following regulars from the companies of Captains Teal and Turner: Campbell, Millerman, Gainer, Cumberland, of Teal's company; Benson, Clayton, Merwin, Legg, of Turner's company.

Cavalry Corps—Mirabeau B. Lamar, commander; Henry Carnes, captain; J. R. Cook, 1st lieutenant, Wm. Harness, 2d lieutenant; W. H. Smith, captain; Lem. Gustine, M.D.; W. Secretts, F. Secretts, A. Allsburry, W. E. Sweeney, Benj. F. Smith, Thos. Robbins, S. C. Tunnage, D. W. Reeves, E. R. Rainwater, J. D. Elliott, J. P. Davis, J. Neil, N. Nixon, G. Denderick, J. Nash, Isaac W. Benton, Jacob Duncan, J. W. Hill, P. Allshury, D. McKay, W. J. C. Pierce, W. King, Thos. Blackwell, Goodwin, J. Coker, Elisha Clapp, H. Henderson, Geo. Johnson, J. W. Williamson, Wilson C. Brown, J. Thompson, John Robbins, Wm. F. Young, Jas. Douthett, John Carpenter, Wm. Taylor, Anthony Foster, Z. Y. Beauford, Spenser Townsend, Jas. Shaw, Wm. D. Redd, Clepper, P. H. Bell, J. W. Robinson.

REGULARS.

Lieut. Col. Henry Millard, commanding; Capt. John M. Allen, acting major.

COMPANY A—Andrew Briscoe, capt.; Martin K. Snell, 1st lieutenant; Robert McCloskey, 2d lieutenant; Lyman F. Rounds, 1st sergt.; David G. Nelson, 2d sergt.; Dan. O'Driscoll, 3d sergt.; Chas. A. Ford, 4th sergt.; Richardson, 1st corp.; Harry C. Craig, 2d corp.; Bear, 3d corp.; Flores, musician.

Privates—Ezra B. Bebee, Benton, H. P. Brewster, Cassady, Dutcher, Darrell, Elliott, Flynn, Farley, Grieves, Warner, Henderson, Lung, Barthartre, Limski, Mason, Montgomery, Marsh, Morton, O'Neil, Pierce, Patton, Rheinhardt, Kainer, Richardson, Smith, 1st, Smith, 2d, Sullivan, Saunders, Swain, Tindall, 1st, Taylor, Van Winkle, Wilkinson, Webb.

VOLUNTEERS.

COMPANY B—A. Turner, capt.; W. Milen, 1st lieutenant; W. W. Summers, 2d lieutenant; Chas. Stewart, Swearingen, sergeants; Robert Moore, Thos. Wilson, and M. Snyder, corp'l's.

Privates—Bernard, Browning, Bissett, Belden, Colton, Harper, Hogan, Harvey, Johnson, Keeland, Niras, Paschal, Phillips, Smith, 1st, Smith, 2d, Callahan, Christie, Clarkson, Dalrymple, Eldridge, Eldson, Ludas, Lind, Minnett, Mordorf, Massie, Moore, 2d, Scheston, Sigman, Tyler, Wood, Wardryski.

COMPANY B—A. R. Romans, capt.; Nicholas Dawson, 2d lieutenant; Jas. Wharton, A. Mitchell, S. L. Wheeler, sergeants; A. Taylor, J. D. Egbert, Charles A. Clarke, W. P. Moore, corporals.

Privates—Angell, G. Brown, Jos. Earstow, J. B. Bradley, B. Coles, J. S. Conn, J. W. T. Dixon, Wm. Daubar, H. Homan, J. M. Jett, Stev. Jett, A. S. Jordan, S. W. Lamar, Edw. Lewis, J. B. W. McFarlane, A. M'Stea, H. Miller, W. G. Newman, W. Richardson, D. Tindate, J. Vinater, C. W. Waldron, F. F. Williams, James Wilder, W. S. Walker, James Owenby.

COMPANY I—W. S. Fisher, capt.; R. W. Carter, 2d lieutenant; Jones, sergt.

Privates—Geo. W. Leek, N. Rodgers, J. W. Strade, Jos. Sovereign, W. Sargeant, R. J. L. Reek, Rufus Wright, Jos. McAllister, B. F. Starkley, Day, John Morgan, W. S. Arnot, M. W. Brigham, P. Burt, Tewister, Slack, R. Banks, Jac. Maybee, Graves, B. F. Fry, E. G. Mayrie, M'Neil, J. M. Shreve, W. Pace, Ch. Stibbins, H. Bond, Geo. Fennell, W. Gill, R. Crittenden, Adam Mosier, J. S. Patterson, Jos. Dornie, J. W. Mason, Thomas Pratt, E. Enghland, A. H. Miles, Jno. Hewelyn, James Joslyn, Jas. Gillespie, A. J. Harris, D. James.

STAFF OF THE COMMAND.

Nicholas Lynch, adjutant; W. M. Carper, surgeon; John Smith, sergeant major; Pinkney Caldwell, quartermaster.

FIRST REGIMENT TEXAN VOLUNTEERS.

Edward Burleson, colonel; Alex. Somerville, lieut. colonel; Jas. W. Tinsley, adjutant; Cleveland, sergt. major.

COMPANY A—Wm. Wood, capt.; S. B. Raymond, 2d lieut.; J. C. Allison, Jas. A. Sylvester, O. T. Brown, Nathaniel Peck, sergeants.

Privates—Irwin Armstrong, W. H. Berryhill, Uriah Blue, Seym Bottsford, Luke W. Bust, James Cumbo, Elijah V. Dale, Abner C. Davis, Jacob Eiler, Simon P. Ford, Garner, G. A. Giddings, Jas. Greenwood, Wm. Griffin, W. C. Hays, T. A. Haskin, Robert Howell, Wm. Lockridge, J. D. Loderback, Edward Miles, Benj. Osborne, J. R. Pinchback, Joseph Rhodes, John W. Rial, Ralph E. Sevey, Manassch Sevey, Ed. W. Taylor, John Viven, Geo. Waters, Jas. Welsh, Ez. Westgate, Walker Winn.

COMPANY C—Jesse Billingsly, capt.; Micah Andrews, 1st lieut.; Jas. A. Craft, 2d lieut.; Russel B. Craft, Wm. H. Magill, Campbell Taylor, sergeants.

Privates—L. S. Cunningham, John Herron, Preston Conly, Jackson Berry, Jefferson Barton, Demry Pace, John W. Buntun, Wm. Criswell, Sam. McClelland, Lemuel Blakely, Geo. Self, Thos. Davy, Jacob Standerford, Wayne Barton, Sampson Connell, Calvin Gage, Martin Walker, Geru E. Brown, Log. Vanderveer, Wash. Anderson, Wm. Standerford, Wm. Simmons, Geo. Green, Geo. P. Erath, T. M. Dennis, Jas. R. Pace, John Hobson, Lewis Goodwin, Jos. Garwood, Willis Avery, Jesse Halderman, Chas. Williams, Aaron Burleson, R. M. Cravens, Walker Wilson, Prior Holden, Thos. A. Mays, A. M. H. Smith, Jas. Curtis, V. M. Rain, Robert Hood, Dugald McLean, Thos. A. Graves.

COMPANY D—Morely Baker, capt.; J. P. Borden, 1st lieut.; John Pettus, 2d lieut.; Jos. Baker, E. C. Pettus, M. A. Bryan, sergeants; Jas. Bell, Jas. Friel, J. L. Hill, corporals.

Privates—O. D. Anderson, J. B. Alexander, John Beachom, T. H. Bell, S. R. Bostick, P. P. Borden, J. Carter, Samuel Davis, G. W. Davis, J. R. Foster, A. Greenhaw, Fowler, Hugh Frazier, Wm. Isbell, R. Kleburg, Mat. Kuykendall, Rob. Moore, Jos. McCrabb, Louis Rorder, V. W. Swearengen, Jos. Vermilion, I. E. Watkins, A. W. Wolsey, W. R. Williams, Ellison York, Patrick Usher, J. S. Meniffee, Paul Scarborough, John Flick, J. H. Money, Weppier, John Marshall, Wm. Bernbeck, Millett, Philip Stroth, Andras Voyel, Nicholas Peck, Wm. Hawkins, J. Dancan, Geo. Sutherland, Thos. Gay, Jos. Miller, G. W. Gardner, Wm. Mock, S. H. Isbell, Jas. Tarlton, Allen Ingraham; McHenry Winburn, W. R. Jackson, D. D. D. Baker, officers belonging to the regular service.

COMPANY K—L. J. Calder, capt.; J. Sharper, 1st lieut.; M. A. Bingham, 1st sergt.

Privates—B. Brigham, J. Conner, P. S. Cooke, T. Cooke, S. Conner, G. J. Johnstone, Granville Mills, Elias Baker, H. Dibble, T. M. Fowler, H. Fields, B. C. Franklin, J. Green, W. C. Hogg, J. Hall, E. B. Halstead, J. W. Hassell, W. Lambert, B. Mims, W. Muir, P. D. McNeil, C. Malone, J. Plunkett, W. P. Reese, C. K. Reese, J. A. Spicer, H. Stonter, J. Threngill, W. P. Scott, R. Crawford, S. B. Mitchell, B. F. Fitch, W. W. Grant, J. S. Edgar, J. Smith, T. D. Owen, W. Hale, A. G. Butts, D. Dedrick, C. Forrister, W. K. Denham.

COMPANY F—Wm. J. E. Heard, capt.; William Eastland, 1st lieut.; Eli Mercer, Wilson Lightfoot, sergis; Alfred Kelso, Elijah Mercer, corporals.

Privates—Rob. McLaughlin, Leroy Wilkinson, Wm. Lightfoot, Dan. Miller, Jesse Robinson, Josiah Hagans, John McCrab, Maxwell Steel, John Bigley, Hugh McKeuzie, Joseph Elinger, John Hallist, J. Robinson, D. Dunham, Wm. Passe, Jas. S. Lester, Phillilla Brading, Christian Winner, Jas. Nelson, John Tumlinson, F. Brockfield, Chas. M. Henry, Jas. Byrd, Nath'l Reid, Andrew Sennatt, P. B. O'Connor, Thos. Ryons, John Lewis, Jos. Highland, Leander Beason, S. T. Foley, Allen Jones, Thos. Adams, Mitchell Putnam, T. M. Hardiman, Chas. Thompson, Wm. Waters.

COMPANY H—Wm. W. Hill, capt. (sick), commanded by R. Stephenson; H. H. Swisher, 1st lieut.; C. Rancey, A. R. Stevens, W. H. Miller, sergeants.

Privates—E. Whitesides, J. S. Stump, J. M. Swisher, Moses Davis, John Lyford, John Tom, Nicholas Crunk, Lewis Clemins, Wm. Hawkins, J. W. Cannon, James Farmer, R. Bowen, A. Lesasien, W. K. Dallas, M. B. Gray, Jas. Gray, B. Doolittle, John Graham, Jas. M. Hill, J. Ingraham, John Gafford, N. Mitchell, David Korneky, Geo. Petty, James Everett, Prosper Hope, J. Powell, Matthew Dunn, J. D. Jennings, John C. Hunt, Jacob Grobe, F. B. Gentry, J. G. Wilkinson, A. Dillard, F. K. Henderson, Uriah Saunders, John Graddick, J. L. Lawrence, A. Canthers, Daniel McKay.

SECOND REGIMENT TEXAN VOLUNTEERS.

Sidney Sherman, colonel; Jos. L. Bennett, lieut. col.; Lysander Wells, major; Edw. B. Wood, adjutant; Bennett McNelly, sergent major.

FIRST COMPANY—Hayden Arnold, capt.; R. W. Smith, 1st lieut.; Isaac Edwards, 2d lieut.

Privates—Sam. Leiper, Peter W. Holmes, W. P. Kincannon, Dan. Doubt, John Moss, E. E. Hamilton, David Rusk, W. F. Williams, J. W. McHorse, H. Malena, Alexin, John Harvey, M. G. Whitaker, John Yancy, S. Yarbrough, Thos. G. Box, Nelson Box, G. R. Mercer, Wm. Nabors, Wm. T. Saddler, Jas. Mitchell, Jas. E. Box, Sam. Phillips, John B. Treney, Lexy Perch, Crawford Grigsby, John McCoy, Dickins Parker, Jesse Walling, J. W. Car-

penter, John Box, W. E. Hallmask, Thos. D. Brooks, S. F. Spanks, Howard Bailey, H. M. Brewer, Stephen McLin.

SECOND COMPANY—Wm. Ware, capt.; Job S. Collard, 1st lieutenant; Geo. A. Lamb, 2d lieutenant; Albert Gallitin, Wm. C. Winters, sergeants.

Privates—J. — Winters, J. W. Winters, C. Edenburg, Lewis Cox, G. W. Robinson, G. W. Lawrence, W. Cartwright, John Sadler, James Wilson, James Derritt, Matthew Moss, Jesse Thomson.

THIRD COMPANY—Wm. M. Logan, capt.; Franklin Harden, 1st lieutenant; B. J. Harper, 2d lieutenant; E. F. Branch, 1st sergeant.

Privates—John Biddle, J. M. Maxwell, M. Charencan, E. Bulliner, P. Bulliner, J. Sleightson, Patrick Carnel, Wm. M. Smith, David Choat, David Cole, Q. Dykes, David M'Fadden, Thomas Orr, Luke Bryant, W. Kibbe, E. M. Tanner, H. R. Williams, Michael Poveto, Leffray Gedrie, Joseph Farewell, C. W. Thompson, Cornelius Devois, M. J. Brakey, Thomas Belnap, Wm. Duffee, Joseph Ellender, William Smith, Wm. Robertson, W. A. Smyth, Jas. Call.

FOURTH COMPANY—Wm. H. Patton, capt. (before entered as aid to Gen. H.); David Murphy, 1st lieutenant; Peter Harper, 2d lieutenant; John Smith, Pendleton Rector, A. W. Breedlove, sergeants; G. L. Bledsoe, corporal.

Privates—Jas. Bradley, J. C. Boyd, Robt. Carr, A. J. Beard, Alex. Bailey, J. J. Childs, St. Clair Patton, Claiborn Rector, Phineas Ripley, Thos. Leveney, J. B. Taylor, L. Willoughby, C. Wright, M. B. Atkinson, Holden Denman, Ed. Daist, R. D. Daist, J. K. Davis, E. Galtner, Jas. Hall, S. Phillips, Thos. McElay, J. A. Barkley, Francis Walcutt, Hinson Curtis, J. B. Grice, Nat. Hager, B. F. Cage, J. M. McCormack, Jas. Haye, Chas. Hick, A. D. Kenyon, G. W. Lewis, J. Pickering, Jas. Harris, Wm. Brennan, Wm. H. Jack, Dr. Baylor, Thos. F. Coney, A. Lewis, W. P. Lane, E. G. Rector.

Thos. H. M'Intire, capt.; John P. Gill, 1st lieutenant; Bazil G. Gians, 2d lieutenant; Robt. D. Tyler, John Wilkinson, sergeants; E. G. Coffman, corp.

Privates—Wm. Boyle, Benj. Bencroft, Geo. Barker, Wm. Bennett, John Clarke, J. B. Coliaut, J. Campbell, Cooper, T. Davis, Oscar Parish, Thos. Hopkins, Jack Lowrie, Placidio M'Curdy, David Oden, G. W. Pentecost, S. W. Peebles, Samuel Sharp, Isaac Jacques, John Chevis, 1st, John Chevis, 2d, Thos. Cox, Cyrus Cepton, Ambrose Mayer, Moses Allison, Isaac Maiden, F. Wilkinson.

James Galsaspy, capt.; Wm. Finch, 1st lieutenant; A. L. Harrison, 2d lieutenant; R. T. Choderick, 1st sergeant.

Privates—John Sayres, F. B. Lasiter, M. K. Gohoen, T. H. Webb, John Peterson, J. Montgomery, T. F. Johnson, Hez. Harris, W. F. Ferrill, Samuel Wyley, Wm. Fertlan, A. Montgomery, A. Lollison, E. M'Millan, S. Daling, J. W. Seolling, J. Richardson, Obanior, Willis L. Ellis, Jas. Walker, Alphonzo Steel, Benj. Johnson, F. M. Woodward, Wm. Peterson, J. C. White, Rob. Henry, Elijah Votan, G. Crosby, Joel Dederick, L. Raney.

B. Bryant, capt.; John C. Hales, 1st lieutenant; A. S. Lewis, 2d lieutenant.

Privates—Wm. Earle, J. S. P. Irven, Sim. Roberts, Jos. P. Parks, C. Rockwell, R. B. Russell, L. H. White, A. M'Kenzie, A. Cobble, John F. Gilbert, D. Roberts, Wm. B. Scates, J. R. Johnson, Wm. Pate, B. Lindsay, Jas. Clarke, Robt. Love.

Wm. Kimbo, capt.; James Rowe, 1st lieutenant; John Harman, William Fisher, Henry Reed, sergeants.

Privates—D. Brown, Wm. Bateman, J. A. Chaffin, H. Corsine, Joel Crane, R. T. Crane, Joshua Clelens, W. H. Davis, S. Holeman, H. Hill, G. D. Hancock, E. O. Legrand, D. Love, D. H. M'Gary, Thos. Maxwell, A. G. M'Gowan, J. W. Proctor, Benj. Thomas, D. Watson, Lewis Wilworth, R. Stevenson, G. W. Jones, W. B. Brown, B. Green, J. Kent, Caddell, R. Hotchkiss, Thos. M. Hughes, A. Buffington, Jas. Burch, R. Burch, A. E. Manuel.

Juan N. Seguin, capt.; Manuel Flores, Antonio Menchasen, sergeants; Nep Flores, Ambro Rodridge, corporals.

Privates—Antonio Cruz, Jose Maria Mocha, Eudnado Samirer, Lucin Ennques, Maticio Curvis, Antonio Cueves, Simon Ancola, Manuel Tarin, Pedro Honern, Thos. Maldonart, Cecario Cormann, Jacinto, Pena, N. Navarro, A. Vareinas, Manuel Avoca.

Buffalo Bayou is perhaps the smallest navigable stream in Texas, but at present it is one of the most important means of communication with the interior. From Galveston Bay to Houston, the ancient capital of Texas, a distance of about 20 miles, this small stream is navigable for steamboats of a large size, although in some places it is not of sufficient width to allow one to turn lengthwise across the stream. The elevated banks which slope

to the water's edge, are thickly set with forest trees, having their branches covered with pendant moss. A striking scene is presented at night, when the steamboat steers her way, as it were, through the forest, with torchlights on both sides.



Night Scene on Buffalo Bayou.

Brownsville, the county seat of Cameron county, is situated on the N. bank of the Rio Grande, about 50 miles by the course of the river from the Gulf of Mexico, and 326 S. from Austin. It is a flourishing place and has considerable commerce with the river towns. It lies opposite Matamoras, in Mexico. Brazos Santiago is the shipping point. The place received its name from Maj. Brown, who was mortally wounded in the defense of the fort here, during the Mexican war, in 1846.

After the terms of annexation were accepted (July 4, 1845), Gen. Taylor was ordered to western Texas. At the head of a considerable force he established his camp at Corpus Christi, then the furthest point west to which the Texan population had extended. In Jan., 1846, he was ordered to march through the uninhabited region between the Nueces and Rio Grande, and take possession of Point Isabel and the points opposite Matamoras and Mier. This was accomplished, some skirmishes ensued, and several being killed soon brought on open and avowed hostilities between the two nations. The following narrative of the battles which ensued, Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, is from "Howe's Achievements of Americans," and is especially valuable from giving the first experience of a soldier in the business of war:

Throwing a garrison into Fort Brown, opposite Matamoras, Gen. Taylor, on the 1st of May, broke up the camp and started with the whole army for Point Isabel, to bring up a large depot of provisions to the fort; we arrived there the succeeding forenoon, and were set to work building intrenchments.

On the 7th, the army set out on its return to Fort Brown, and after proceeding about seven miles, we encamped beside a pond, where the mosquitoes were so plenty that we could not sleep. The next morning we resumed our march, calculating to get through if *nothing prevented*; but about noon, the dragoons brought intelligence that the enemy were in force in front. "Now we'll have it, boys!"

said the men; and, I must confess, I felt a sudden thrill at this intelligence. Gen. Taylor in a few minutes ordered a halt beside a pond of water, for the men to fill their canteens.

Here we got our first view of the enemy. "Look! look! Oh! look at them!" cried several at once. "My stars! what a host!" exclaimed others. We now advanced slowly in order of battle, occasionally halting, until we were within a little over half a mile distant from them. Their appearance was exceedingly grand; directly in front stood their infantry, with here and there an interval of artillery—their bright brass guns reflecting the rays of the sun. On each side, stretching over the prairie, was their cavalry, with a host of sharp-pointed, bright-shining lances, with their pendants of red and blue. Vast masses of infantry, in rear of their front line were moving into different positions for the coming fray, and their field officers were galloping up and down, giving out their respective orders. When all was completed, their army stood perfectly still; their right resting on a dense thicket of chapparal, and their left stretching across the road, and protected at the end by a swamp. Their whole line was about one mile in length; they had eleven field pieces and about six thousand men. It was an awe-inspiring spectacle—those Mexicans on the field of Palo Alto.

Now let us look at our little army. Our regiments, from sickness and other causes, had not over one half of the usual number of men, and here we were on the day of battle in a miserably weak condition. The company to which I belonged, "B," had only sixteen bayonets. We had nine regiments, and they numbered, officers and all, but a little over twenty-two hundred men; but there was a self-reliance among them that seemed to augur success.

Gen. Taylor, for simple hard fighting, was an excellent officer, but he knew little of tactics, rarely put any military evolution in practice, and had not the confidence of the army like Worth and Scott. In this battle we had two light batteries—Ringgold's and Duncan's—of four pieces each, and two eighteen pound iron guns, under the command of Lieut. Churchill, and the battle was mainly fought with artillery. The eighteen pounders were on the right of our regiment, which was near the center of our line; I was on the extreme left of the regiment. Churchill's guns were each drawn by two yoke of oxen. A Texan boy drove one of the teams; as we were coming into position his coolness was remarkable, and his talk to his oxen amusing. "Go along, buck!" he said, "if you're killed, you are fat and will make good beef." When all was ready, both armies stood still for about twenty minutes, each waiting for the other to begin the work of death, and during this time, I did not see a single man of the enemy move; they stood like statues.

We remained quiet with two exceptions; Gen. Taylor, followed by his staff, rode from left to right at a slow pace, with his right leg thrown over like a woman, and as he passed each regiment, he spoke words of encouragement. I know not what he said to the others, but when he came up to where we stood, he looked steadily at us; I suppose, to see what effect the circumstances in which we were placed had upon us, and, as he gazed, he said: "*The bayonet, my hardy cocks! the bayonet is the thing!*" The other occasion was that of Lieut. Blake, of the engineers, who volunteered to gallop along the enemy's line, in front of both armies, and count their guns; and so close did he go that he might have been shot a hundred times. One of the officers of the enemy, doubtless thinking he had some communication to make, rode out to meet him; Blake, however, paid no attention to him, but rode on, and then returned and reported to Taylor.

Thus stood those two belligerent armies, face to face. What were the feelings of those thousands! How many thoughts and fears were crowded into those few moments! Look at our men! a clammy sweat is settled all over faces slightly pale, not from cowardly fear, but from an awful sense of peril combined with a determination not to flinch from *duty*. These are the moments in which true soldiers resign themselves to their fate, and console themselves with the reflection that whatever may befall them they will act with *honor*; these are the moments when the absolute coward suffers more than death—when, if not certain he would be shot in his tracks, he would turn and flee. Fighting is very hard work; the man who has passed through a two hours' fight, has lived through a great amount of mental and physical labor. At the end of a battle I always found that I had per-

spired so profusely as to wet through all my thick woollen clothing, and when I had got cool, I was as sore as if I had been beaten all over with a club. When the battle commences, the feelings undergo a change. Reader, did you ever see your house on fire? if so, it was then you rushed into great danger; it was then you went over places, climbed up walls, lifted heavy loads, which you never could have done in your cooler moments; you then have experienced some of the excitement of a soldier in battle. I always knew my danger—that at any moment I was liable to be killed, yet such was my excitement that I never fully realized it. All men are not alike; some are cool; some are perfectly wild or crazy; others are so prostrated by fear that they are completely unnerved—an awful sinking and relaxation of all their energies takes place, pitiable to behold; they tremble like an aspen, sink into ditches and covert places, cry like children, and are totally insensible to shame—dead to every emotion but the overwhelming fear of instant death. We had a few, and but a few, of such in our army.

As the two armies were facing each other, it was remarkable to see the coolness of our men; there they stood, chewing bits of biscuit, and talking about the Mexicans—some wondering if they would fight; others allowing that they would, and like demons, etc. I kept my eye on the artillery of the enemy, and happened to be looking toward their right-wing when suddenly a white curl of smoke sprang up there from one of their guns, and then I saw the dust fly some distance in front where the ball struck. Instantly another, and then another rich curl of smoke arose, succeeded by a booming sound, and the shot came crashing toward us. The enemy fired very rapidly, and their balls knocked the dust about us in all directions—some went over our heads, others struck the ground in front and bounded away.

Our batteries now went to work, and poured in upon them a perfect storm of iron: Lieut. Churchill and his men began with their eighteen-pounders, and when the first was fired, it made such a loud report that our men gave a spontaneous shout, which seemed to inspire us with renewed confidence. I could hear every word the lieutenant said to his men. When the first shot was fired, he watched the ball, saying, "Too high, men; try another!"—"too low, men; try again—the third time is the charm!" The third shot was fired, and I saw with my own eyes the dreadful effect of that and the following shots. "That's it, my boys!" shouted Churchill, jumping up about two feet; "you have them now! keep her at that!" and so they did, and every shot tore complete lanes right through the enemy's lines; but they stood it manfully. The full chorus of battle now raged; twenty-three pieces of artillery belched forth their iron hail.

We were ordered to lie down in the grass to avoid the shot; this puzzled the enemy, and they could not bring their guns to bear upon us, making our loss very small. Many were the narrow escapes; one ball came within six inches of my left side. The force of the shot was tremendous; a horse's body was no obstacle at all; a man's leg was a mere pipe stem. I watched the shot as it struck the roots of the grass, and it was astonishing how the dust flew. In about an hour, the grass caught on fire, and the clouds of smoke shut out the opposing armies from view. We had not as yet lost a man from our regiment. In the obscurity, the enemy changed their line, and the eighteen-pounders, supported by our regiment, took a new position on a little rise of ground. As we moved on to the spot, a six-pound shot carried away the lower jaw of Capt. Page, and then took off a man's head on the right, as clean as if with a knife. The blood of poor Page was the first blood I saw; he was knocked down in the grass, and as he endeavored to raise himself, he presented such a ghastly spectacle that a sickly, fainting sensation came over me, and the memory of that sight I shall carry with me to my dying day. A little later, Major Ringgold was mortally wounded at his battery; I saw him just after it. The shot had torn away a portion of the flesh of his thighs: its force was tremendous, cutting off both his pistols at the locks, and also the withers of his horse—a splendid steed which was killed to relieve him of his misery. The enemy tried hard, but without avail, to hit our eighteen-pounders. The battle continued until night put an end to the scene. We bivouacked where we were, and laid on our arms; we slept, however, but little, thinking we might be attacked in our sleep.

The enemy had been very severely handled, owing to the superiority of our artillery. The gunners went into it more like butchers than military men; each stripped off his coat, rolled up his sleeves, and tied his suspenders around his waist; they all wore red flannel shirts, and, therefore, were in uniform. To see them limbering and unlimbering, firing a few shots, then dashing through the smoke, and then to fire again with lightning-like rapidity, partly hid from view by dense clouds of dust and smoke, with their dark-red shirts and naked arms, yelling at every shot they made, reminded me of a band of demons rather than of men.

On the morning of the ninth, the sun rose in splendor. The enemy having retired into the chapparal, we resumed our march toward the fort. On arriving at the position the enemy had occupied the day before, the scene was shocking; here lay a beautiful black

horse and rider, both dead; a little beyond was a heap of artillery-men horribly mangled, some entirely headless, others with their bowels torn out, and again others with an arm or a leg, sometimes both, shot away. One man, I noticed, had been shot in a singular manner; the ball must have bounded, and, as it was rising, struck its victim about the right haunch, then passing up diagonally through his body, came out under his left arm. The positions of the dead were in many instances peculiar; some in their death-agonies had caught with their hands in the grass, and thus died: some others were in a kind of sitting posture; the countenances of some were horribly distorted, others had a smile—an absolute laugh. The enemy had left behind a part of their wounded; one poor fellow who appeared to be quite intelligent, was badly wounded in the ankle; when we came near him, he called out piteously, "*Bueno Americano! Agua, Señor! agua, Señor!*"—Good American! Water, sir! water, sir! We ran and offered him our canteens, and gave him biscuit, for which he appeared grateful.

Our advance guard had been through, and ascertained that the enemy were posted at Resaca de la Palma, a few miles off. A ravine here crossed the road, and on each side it was skirted with dense chapparal; the ravine was occupied by their artillery. We marched on the narrow road through the chapparal toward their position. The battle commenced with those in advance. The balls began to crash through the woods over our heads, when our regiment deployed to the left and then to the right of the road, and advanced through the chapparal toward the enemy, whom we could not then see. Lieut. Haller called out, "Fourth and Fifth Infantry, charge!" Both regiments responded with a cheer, and rushed on. In a few paces we came to a small pond, and here I had my first chance for a shot at the Mexicans, who were in line on the opposite bank, and were pouring their balls right into our faces. The bushes screened all below their waists. I knelt down on my right knee, cocked my musket, and brought it to an aim on the mass in front of me, making my first shot at the human family. I fired four shots in this manner, the branches in the meanwhile dropping off and the dust springing up all around me from the shot of my friends across the little water. The word was then given to charge, and we dashed into the water which took me about half-thigh deep; when in the middle, a ball just grazed my right ear, and another struck a lieutenant by me in the right arm. The Mexicans broke and ran, and we continued charging along the pond until we came to where their guns were stationed. Here our troops, of different regiments, got mixed up. The Mexicans fought desperately, and many were slain.

When our infantry closed upon their artillery, some of our men were killed by a shot from Duncan's battery, which remained on the east side of the ravine. The fight was now confined to this central position; their guns on the right and left of it having been taken. Here stood Gen. La Vega almost alone, his men having been shot down around him from the combined effects of our infantry on the right and left, and Duncan's battery in front. Just at this moment, when the infantry of all the regiments there engaged rushed in upon La Vega's position, Capt. May charged with the dragoons who received the last gun that the enemy fired; but before the dragoons had got up, La Vega was captured with a large number of the officers and men of the enemy. The dragoons charged clear past this point, and having received a heavy volley from the enemy's infantry and cavalry who were rallying beyond, May ordered a retreat. As he was returning, La Vega, already a prisoner and held as such by the infantry, judging that May was a superior officer, gave up his sword to him.

After those guns were captured, about thirty of us went in pursuit of the retreating enemy until we came upon an open space of, perhaps, two acres; here we found a large pack of mules and the abandoned tent of Gen. Arista; we stopped a moment, and then continued on the road until we were charged by the lancers. Lieut. Hays sang out, "They are too strong for us, boys!—retreat! retreat!" which we did for a short pace, and then faced the enemy. The lancers came down upon us, when we poured in a volley which sent them back. Lieut. Cochrane, instead of coming on with us, ran behind a small clump of bushes on the opposite side of the road, when a lancer rode up and deliberately lanced him. We reloaded, and on they came again, headed by an officer mounted on a splendid white horse. Some one sang out, "Shoot that man on the white horse!" We poured in another volley, and down went both horse and rider, beside numerous others; among them was the man that had killed Lieut. Cochrane. I went out and plucked up his lance; it was covered with the blood of the poor lieutenant. At this moment came up our light artillery and the dragoons, who pursued the enemy to the river where many were drowned in crossing, and thus ended the battle of Resaca de la Palma. Then I never heard such shouting as came from our men; they seemed nearly crazy with joy. I can not describe my feelings when I saw what a victory we had won!

Nacogdoches is 60 miles W. of the Sabine, and 210 E. from Austin, on an elevated triangular plain, at the head of several small streams which enter the River Angelina. It contains a fine court house, several churches, and

about 1,000 inhabitants. This place was one of the first settled by the Spanish in Texas, being occupied as a military post. Its improvement did not commence till 1788, when many persons moved there from New Orleans, and Capt. Gil y Barbo, the first commandant, established an arsenal and barracks, and built the "old stone house," which still remains. The county of Nacogdoches was created in 1836, from the municipality of the same name. The white population of the county is about 8,000, mostly Americans. Churches and schools are liberally supplied, and the state of society generally good. Previous to and during the American Revolution, an active trade was carried on by the Spanish settlement at Natchez, through Nacogdoches to the interior of Texas, and it was through those engaged in this trade that the great beauty and fertility of country became known to the Americans, and attracted many adventurers.

San Augustine is situated in a rich cotton growing region, on a branch of the Neches River, 27 miles from the Sabine, and 360 from Austin. It was laid off in 1833, and contains a court house, several churches, and about 1,500 inhabitants. It is very healthy, being built on the high rolling lands, and is one of the most beautiful towns in Texas. The University of San Augustine was incorporated in 1837.

Port Lavacca is the capital of Calhoun county. It is on the W. side of Lavacca Bay, about 160 miles S.E. of Austin, and is the principal shipping port of that part of Texas. Population about 600.

Matagorda, on Matagorda Bay, at the mouth of Colorado River, 250 miles S.E. from Austin, is a place of considerable commerce, being the depot for the produce of the fertile Colorado valley. Population about 600.

There are many towns in Texas beside those mentioned, that have 1,000 inhabitants. *Marshall, Gonzales, Victoria* and *Paris* have each of them over that number, and though neither of them reach 2,000, they are important business centers for their respective districts.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES, MISCELLANIES, ETC.

Moses Austin was born in Durham, Connecticut, about the year 1764, and of a highly respectable family. He was well educated, and was bred a merchant, and possessed uncommon energy and enterprise. He engaged in merchandising in Philadelphia, then in Richmond, and later bought lead mines in Wythe county, Va., where he engaged in mining, introduced artisans from England, and established the first shot and sheet lead manufactory in the United States. In 1799, he removed to the Mine-a-Barton lead mine in Missouri, and there established the business of lead mining in the wilderness, surrounded by savages: his ore was conveyed on horseback to St. Genevieve, 40 miles distant. Until 1817, he conducted a prosperous business, his house became the abode of elegant hospitality, and the wilderness around was made to smile under his enterprise. Then the failure of the Missouri bank so embarrassed his circumstances that he then, at the age of 55 years, voluntarily gave up all his property to his creditors, and with invincible firmness prepared to found an American colony in Texas. In the execution of his plans he had the aid of his son Stephen. He did not live to see them consummated, as he died on the eve of their accomplishment, June 10, 1821, leaving on his death bed the message to his son to carry forward his enterprise.

Gen. Stephen F. Austin, sometimes called "the Father of Texas," was born in Wythe county, Va., in 1793. He began his education at Colchester, Conn., and finished it at Transylvania University, in Kentucky. At the time of his father's death he was 28 years of age. He resolved to accept his father's dying trust, and after much toil and with great address, he succeeded in the enterprise, fixing his

colonial capital on the Brazos—San Felipe de Austin. Gov. Austin died Dec. 25, 1836, in the 45th year of his age. His qualities of head and heart made him loved by all. "Every log cabin in the land was open to him. Every child of every colonist knew him, and was permitted to play upon his knee. When he first entered the province of Texas, in 1821, there was but one settlement from the Sabine to San Antonio—*Nacogdoches*, and in it was only one family and three unmarried men. The ring of the axe had never been heard on the Brazos and Colorado. The settlers followed in the wake of their young and adventurous leader, with the rifle, the ax, the plow and the seed corn. Soon the green blades of corn waved over the luxuriant virgin fields, and the smoke arose from 300 cabins, and 300 good rifles were ready to follow him to battle for the right." In 1823-4, Austin's colony was infested by robbers and fugitives from justice from the United States. At first mild measures were tried to put a stop to their depredations. This only emboldened to greater crimes, they adding murder to robbery. At length a band of these desperadoes were attacked and all but one killed, who escaped. The head of one of them was cut off and set on a pole as a warning to like offenders.

David S. Burnet was born in Newark, New Jersey, April 4, 1789. His father, Dr. William Burnet, was a medical officer during the Revolutionary war, and was also a member of the continental congress. His brother, Maj. Ichabod Burnet, was aid to Maj. Gen. Greene. Judge Burnet was educated at a highly respectable academy in his native town. He had a predilection for the navy, but was persuaded to give it up, and to place himself in a counting house in New York in 1805. Early in 1806, with the consent of his friends, he joined the celebrated expedition under Gen. Miranda, which was organized in New York. Miranda sailed from New York in Feb., 1806, and made the first aggressive demonstration toward the emancipation from Spanish domination at La Villa de Coro, on the Gulf of Venezuela. A landing was effected in front of a battery, and the enemy were forced to retire. Lieut. Burnet commanded in the launch from the frigate, and consequently was one of those who fired the first gun in favor of Spanish American independence.

The expedition was finally abandoned, and most of the survivors of the original party returned to New York. In 1817, Mr. Burnet was a merchant in Natchitoches, La. Being threatened with pulmonary consumption, he was advised by his physician to adopt the Indian life and manner of living; he accordingly went among the Comanches on the Colorado, and remained more than a year, during which time he subsisted on buffalo and other wild meat, without bread or vegetables of any kind, and by this means his health was restored. He afterward removed to Cincinnati, Ohio, where he studied law. In 1826, Mr. Burnet emigrated to Texas. In 1833, he was elected to the convention at San Felipe, for the purpose of obtaining a separate state organization from the Federal Government at Mexico. In 1834, he was appointed by the state government judge of the municipality of Austin, comprehending about one half the population of Texas. When the spirit of war began to be exhibited against the Mexicans, Judge Burnet was in the opposition, and continued quiet on his little farm. But when the news arrived that Santa Anna had assumed dictatorial powers, and abolished the state governments, he took a decided stand in favor of resistance. In 1836, he was elected by the convention that declared independence, president *ad interim* of the incipient republic. He was afterward chosen vice president. Since this period he has lived in retirement on his farm, near and in sight of the battle field of San Jacinto.

Mirabeau B. Lamar, the third president of Texas, was born in Jefferson county, Georgia, in 1798. His ancestors were French Huguenots, who fled from persecution in their native land, and settled in the southern states. He came to Texas in 1835, to aid the people in their resistance against the arbitrary power of Santa Anna. He opposed all timid counsels, and boldly advocated a declaration of independence, like that of July 4, 1776, and it is stated that his speech, delivered in the town of Washington, was the first open advocacy of that policy. He first distinguished himself as a soldier in the cavalry action previous to the battle of San Jacinto. After this victory he was placed by President Burnet at the head of the war department. He was subsequently elected the first vice president under the

Constitutional Republic, and two years afterward to the presidency. When he came into this office the republic had but very little credit or money, but by his wise and judicious administration, he secured all the advantages of a good government. Gen. Lamar retired from office in 1841, but on the breaking out of the war between Mexico and the United States, he accompanied the Texan forces to the theater of conflict, and acquired fresh laurels at the battle of Monterey.

THE FREEBOOTER LAFITTE.

Jean Lafitte was born in Bordeaux, France, and in youth ran away from home and shipped on board an English man-of-war. Eventually he found his way to South America and the West Indies, and engaged in privateering and smuggling. In 1808, when the United States laid an embargo on foreign commerce, he engaged in illicit trade to New Orleans. About the year 1810 or 1811, the island of Grand Terre, afterward known as *Barrataria*, about 60 miles from the delta of the Mississippi, became a notorious resort of privateers. Among the chieftains there Lafitte became in power almost absolute. He had two brothers in New Orleans, and through them interested many of the principal merchants and traders in that city in his smuggling and privateering schemes, much to the damage of the honest traders there, and to the disgrace of the state and corruption of public morals. In March, 1813, Gov. Claiborne issued a proclamation ordering the Barratarians to disperse; failing in which, he offered a reward of \$500 for the head of Lafitte. The latter in turn offered \$15,000 for the head of his excellency! Next the governor sent a company of militia to break up Barrataria. Its commander happened to have been one of Lafitte's old captains. Lafitte surrounded them, took them prisoners, and then sent them home loaded with presents.

Early in 1814, President Madison sent Commodore Patterson, of the United States navy, to destroy the establishment:

"Accordingly on the 11th of June, 1814, the commodore left New Orleans, accompanied by Col. Ross and seventy-one picked men of the 44th regiment United States infantry. He took with him the schooner *Caroline* and the United States gunboats at the Balize. On the morning of the 16th he reached Barrataria. The town consisted of about forty houses, of different sizes, badly constructed, and thatched with palmetto. The vessels of the freebooters consisted of six fine schooners and one felucca, as cruisers, and one armed schooner under Carthaginian colors. The rovers came out to meet the commodore, and formed their vessels into line of battle, having mounted on them twenty pieces of cannon, and exhibiting a force of eight hundred or a thousand men. But when they saw the commodore determined, and still advancing, they abandoned the place and fled, concealing themselves in the numerous morasses of the surrounding country. The commodore returned to New Orleans on the 23d of June, bearing with him the vessels and spoil of Barrataria.

This expedition so crippled the freebooters, that they could only operate afterward with great secrecy. The war between the United States and Great Britain prevented further attempts against them. They were, however, approached by the British in a different manner. On the 3d of September, 1814, Capt. Lockyer, commander of his majesty's man-of-war *Sophia*, put in to the shore at Barrataria, and offered Lafitte the rank of post-captain in the British navy, the command of a frigate, and thirty thousand pounds sterling, to join his majesty's forces. Lafitte asked two weeks' time to consider the proposal, giving the captain some hope, however, that he would accept it.

The next day, Lafitte inclosed the written propositions to Gov. Claiborne, writing him also a polite letter, tendering his services to the United States, on condition that he and his adherents should be protected from further interruption. The offer was accepted; and Lafitte and his men, stationed at the guns near the *Terce*, on 8th of January, 1815, did such service as to call forth a general pardon from the president of the United States."

Lafitte was unable, from the vigilance of the United States authorities, to again establish himself at Barrataria. He finally occupied the island of Galveston, as related in the preceding pages, and for years became closely identified with the history of Texas.

Hon. J. Pinckney Henderson was born in Lincoln Co., North Carolina, March 31, 1808. He received a liberal education, and adopted the law as a profession. He emigrated to Texas in 1836, and his first civil office was that of attorney-general

of the Republic of Texas, having been appointed, by President Houston, in 1836; in 1837, he was appointed secretary of state of the Republic; soon afterward minister plenipotentiary to England and France, clothed with the additional powers of commissioner to solicit the recognition of the independence of Texas; in 1838, he made a commercial arrangement with England, and in 1839 a commercial treaty with France; in 1844, he was appointed a special minister to the United States, which mission resulted in the annexation of Texas: in 1845, he was a member of the convention which framed the constitution of the state of Texas; in Nov., of the same year, was elected governor of the state; and when the Mexican war broke out, in 1846, as governor of the state, and by permission of the legislature, he took command, in person, of the volunteer troops called for by General Taylor, served six months as major-general, and distinguished himself at the battle of Monterey, subsequently receiving from congress, for his services, a vote of thanks and a sword valued at fifteen hundred dollars. He was elected a senator, in congress, in 1857, but owing to ill-health, did not take an active part in its proceedings, and he died in Washington City, June 4, 1858, deeply lamented by all who knew him.—*Dictionary of Congress.*

"*Gen. Samuel Houston* was born," says the Dictionary of Congress, "in Rock-bridge county, Virginia, March 2, 1793. He lost his father when quite young, and his mother removed with her family to the banks of the Tennessee, at that time the limit of civilization. Here he received but a scanty education; he passed several years among the Cherokee Indians, and in fact, through all his life he seems to have held opinions with Rousseau, and retained a predilection for life in the wilderness. After having served for a time as clerk to a country trader, and kept a school, in 1813 he enlisted in the army, and served under Gen. Jackson in the war with the Creek Indians. He distinguished himself on several occasions, and at the conclusion of the war he had risen to the rank of lieutenant, but soon resigned his commission and commenced the study of law at Nashville. It was about this time that he began his political life. After holding several minor offices in Tennessee, he was, in 1823, elected to Congress, and continued a member of that body until, in 1827, he became governor of the state of Tennessee. In 1829, before the expiration of his gubernatorial term, he resigned his office, and went to take up his abode among the Cherokees in Arkansas. During his residence among the Indians, he became acquainted with the frauds practiced upon them by the government agents, and undertook a mission to Washington for the purpose of exposing them. In the execution of this project, he met with but little success; he became involved in lawsuits, and returned to his Indian friends. During a visit to Texas, he was requested to allow his name to be used in the canvass for a convention which was to meet to form a constitution for Texas, prior to its admission into the Mexican union. He consented, and was unanimously elected. The constitution drawn up by the convention was rejected by Santa Anna, at that time in power, and the disaffection of the Texans caused thereby, was still further heightened by a demand upon them to give up their arms. They determined upon a resistance; a militia was organized, and Austin, the founder of the colony, was elected commander-in-chief, in which office he was shortly after succeeded by Gen. Houston. He conducted the war with vigor, and finally brought it to a successful termination by the battle of San Jacinto, which was fought in April, 1836. In May, 1836, he signed a treaty, acknowledging the independence of Texas, and in October of the same year he was inaugurated the first president of the Republic. At the end of his term of office, as the same person could not constitutionally be elected president twice in succession, he became a member of the Texan congress. In 1841, however, he was again elevated to the presidential chair. During the whole time that he held that office it was his favorite policy to effect the annexation of Texas to the United States, but he retired from office before he saw the consummation of his wishes. In 1844, Texas became one of the states of the Union, and Gen. Houston was elected to the senate. He has since been governor of the state."

Hon. Thomas Jefferson Rusk "was born in South Carolina; studied law, and practiced with success in Georgia. In the early part of 1835, he removed to Texas, and was a prominent actor in all the important events in the history of the repub-

lie and state of Texas. He was a member of the convention that declared Texas an independent republic, in March, 1836; was the first secretary of war; participated in the battle of San Jacinto, and took command of the army after General Houston was wounded. He continued in command of the army until the organization of the constitutional government, in October, 1836, when he was again appointed secretary of war, and resigned after a few months. He afterward commanded several expeditions against the Indians; served as a member of the house of representatives, and as chief justice of the supreme court, which last office he resigned early in 1842. In 1845, he was president of the convention that consummated the annexation of Texas to the United States. Upon the admission of Texas into the Union he was elected one of the senators in the congress of the United States, in which office he served two terms, and was elected for the third term. He was chairman of the committee on the post-office. He took a deep interest in the wagon-road to the Pacific, and the overland mail. At the time of his death, which occurred in Nacogdoches, Texas, July 29, 1856, he was president, *pro tem.*, of the senate. In a moment of insanity, caused by overwhelming grief at the death of his wife, he took his own life, aged fifty-four.—*Dictionary of Congress.*

Gen. Sidney Sherman was born in Marlborough, Massachusetts, in 1805. In the midst of a snow storm, December, 1835, he embarked on a steamer at Cincinnati, at the head of a volunteer company of Kentuckians he had raised, to battle for the independence of Texas. He was a colonel at San Jacinto, where he greatly distinguished himself. He there first sounded the war cry—*Remember the Alamo! Goliad and the Alamo!* In 1846, he conceived the idea of rebuilding the town of Harrisburg, which had been destroyed. From thence he built a railroad westward, the first in Texas, and the locomotive the "Gen. Sherman," was the first that appeared west of the Sabine.

Col. Benj. R. Milam, "the hero of Bexar," was born in Kentucky, and bred to the hatter's business in Lexington in that state. In 1826 he was one of the heroic band of three hundred Americans who went to Mexico, and joined the republican standard of Victoria, and in different actions routed three and four times their own number. His military life there was full of vicissitude. After the taking of Goliad, in Sept., 1835, by a mere handful of Texans, Milam thus told the story of his experience there, in a spirited address of five lines. Said he—"I assisted Mexico to gain her independence. I have spent more than twenty years of my life in that country. I have endured heat and cold, hunger and thirst; but the events of this night have fully compensated me for all my losses and all my sufferings." In less than two months after "old Ben Milam" met a soldier's death at the storming of Bexar.

Col. James Bowie, the inventor of the *Bowie knife*, was a son of Rezin Bowie, and was born in Burke county, Georgia. "Of his parents, it is said they were from Maryland. The father was a man of strong mind and sound judgment. The mother was a pious and excellent lady, and from her it was thought that the children inherited their remarkable energy of character. They had five children, viz: David, James, Rezin P., John J., and Stephen, who were all large, muscular men. In 1802, the family removed to Chatthoula parish, Louisiana. On the 19th of September, 1827, James Bowie was engaged, on a bar of the Mississippi, in a duel with Norris Wright and others—one of the bloodiest rencounters of this class on record—in which he was wounded, and two men were killed. Shortly after this he came to Texas, as did also his brother Rezin P. Bowie. James Bowie was about six feet high, of fair complexion, with small blue eyes, not fleshy, but well proportioned; he stood quite erect, and had a rather fierce look; was not quarrelsome, but mild and quiet, even at the moment of action. He was quite sociable, and somewhat disposed to intemperance, but never drunk. He had a wonderful art in winning people to him, and was extremely profligal of his money. His muscular power was as great as his daring; his brother says he has been known to rope and ride alligators! His great speculation was in purchasing negroes from Lafitte, and smuggling them into Louisiana. This is the most unpleasant feature in his history. He fell at the Alamo."—*Youakum's Texas.*

STOCK RAISING IN TEXAS.

In south-western Texas, the chief occupation of the rural population is stock-raising. As late as the year 1838, and for years after the prairies of this region were covered with immense herds of wild cattle, the offspring of those belonging to the inhabitants prior to the border wars. Expeditions were, at that period, formed in Texas to hunt up and collect these animals, and when they were exhausted, the "*Cow Boys*," as they were called, pushed their expeditions to the Rio Grande, and drove off the gentle cattle of the Mexicans. On these forays severe conflicts often took place between the hostile parties, in which the "*Cow Boys*" were almost sure to be successful.

For a few years after "annexation," the price of cattle was low; but with the improved means of transportation, prices have gone up, and now immense droves are taken to the north-west and to the eastern market. A writer in the *Texas Almanac*,* for 1861, gives interesting details upon this business, from which we make some extracts:

From the natural increase, and the large droves of cattle driven to the west from middle and eastern Texas and the western part of Louisiana, on account of the superior pasturage in this section, stocks have become large and numerous, and many think this part of the country is becoming overstocked. Be that as it may, the number of cattle is very great, and it has become a much more laborious task to attend to a stock of cattle than when they were less numerous.

As the cattle are permitted to range indiscriminately over a large surface of country, thirty, forty, and even fifty miles in extent from north to south and east to west, and cattle from several hundred stocks get mixed together, it is no easy task to hunt up and mark and brand the calves of a large stock; still it is done, and with tolerable accuracy.

The principal brandings take place twice in the year—in the spring and fall. For this purpose the men of each neighborhood form themselves into companies, called, in local phrase, a "*crowd*," to the number of ten, twelve, or fifteen men, each man having one, two, or three spare horses, according to circumstances, with pack-horses to carry provisions, blankets, etc., for the "*crowd*" (company.) Thus provided for a "*hunt*" of several weeks, they sally forth, each man with lasso at saddle-bow, and armed with an excellent six-shooter and formidable bowie-knife. They traverse a wide extent of country, driving into close herds large numbers of cattle at places most convenient to a pen. They then "*cut out*" (select from the herd) such cattle as belong to the men who compose the "*crowd*," and those for whom they brand; drive them into the pen, and mark, brand, and alter the calves. Persons not acquainted with this mode of managing stock will naturally ask how each man can tell his own calves. This is easily told by observing what cow the calf follows and sucks. But some few calves amongst so large a number of cattle escape the "*branding*." These calves, when afterward discovered, if they have ceased to suck their mothers, and can not be identified, are accounted common property, and are divided, pro rata, amongst the stock-owners of the neighborhood.

"Cattle-hunting" is quite a laborious business; and especially is it so in a crowded pen in warm weather: to "*rope*," throw down and tie the strong and active calves of six, eight or twelve months old, and often grown cattle; in dry weather in a cloud of dust, and in wet, in mud, sometimes ankle-deep. This is both disagreeable and fatiguing, in addition to which there is considerable risk from vicious cattle, which keeps the hands constantly on the alert to avoid being "*hooked*." There is also much exposure to the heat of the noon-day sun, and the damp, chilly midnight winds that blow fresh over the extensive prairies. But the proper time to do this is late in the fall, when the men are frequently exposed to cold rains and northers.

But this wild life has also its attractions and exciting pleasures, especially for the young and adventurous; as it is not devoid of risk, and affords to the aspiring mind of youth an opportunity of a display of courage and prowess that is not found in any other department of rural life. The young men that follow this "*Cow Boy*" life, notwithstanding its hardships and exposures, generally become attached to it. For a camp life, they live well, carrying out with them plenty of coffee and sugar, hard bread (pilot bread), bacon, etc., and when on a "*hunt*," never want for fresh meat, as the unbranded yearlings afford a plenty of the most delicious, and are pretty freely used, as they belong to no particular person. Deer, prairie-hens or grouse, and other game being also plenty, they fare sumptuously; at least, so it appears to men blessed with excellent appetites. Whisky is pretty generally excluded, as it is found rather dangerous in companionship with six-shooters.

APPENDIX.

CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

OFFICIAL CENSUS TABLE,

SHOWING THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND TERRITORIES, ACCORDING TO THE SEVENTH CENSUS (1850), AND THE EIGHTH CENSUS (1860), RESPECTIVELY.

CENSUS OF 1850.

| States. | Free. | Slave. | Total. |
|---------------------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| Alabama, - - - - - | 428,779 | 342,844 | 771,623 |
| Arkansas, - - - - - | 162,797 | 47,100 | 209,897 |
| California, - - - - - | 92,597 | — | 92,597 |
| Connecticut, - - - - - | 370,792 | — | 370,792 |
| Delaware, - - - - - | 89,242 | 2,290 | 91,532 |
| Florida, - - - - - | 48,135 | 39,310 | 87,445 |
| Georgia, - - - - - | 524,503 | 381,682 | 906,185 |
| Illinois, - - - - - | 851,470 | — | 851,470 |
| Indiana, - - - - - | 988,416 | — | 988,416 |
| Iowa, - - - - - | 192,214 | — | 192,214 |
| Kansas, - - - - - | — | — | — |
| Kentucky, - - - - - | 771,424 | 210,981 | 982,405 |
| Louisiana, - - - - - | 272,953 | 244,809 | 517,762 |
| Maine, - - - - - | 583,169 | — | 583,169 |
| Maryland, - - - - - | 492,666 | 90,368 | 583,034 |
| Massachusetts, - - - - - | 994,514 | — | 994,514 |
| Mississippi, - - - - - | 296,648 | 309,878 | 606,526 |
| Missouri, - - - - - | 594,622 | 87,422 | 682,044 |
| Michigan, - - - - - | 397,654 | — | 397,654 |
| Minnesota, - - - - - | 6,077 | — | 6,077 |
| New Hampshire, - - - - - | 317,976 | — | 317,976 |
| New Jersey, - - - - - | 489,319 | 236 | 489,555 |
| New York, - - - - - | 3,097,394 | — | 3,097,394 |
| North Carolina, - - - - - | 580,491 | 288,548 | 869,039 |
| Ohio, - - - - - | 1,980,329 | — | 1,980,329 |
| Oregon, - - - - - | 13,294 | — | 13,294 |
| Pennsylvania, - - - - - | 2,311,786 | — | 2,311,786 |
| Rhode Island, - - - - - | 147,545 | — | 147,545 |
| South Carolina, - - - - - | 283,523 | 384,984 | 668,507 |
| Tennessee, - - - - - | 763,258 | 239,459 | 1,002,717 |
| Texas, - - - - - | 154,431 | 58,161 | 212,592 |
| Virginia, - - - - - | 949,133 | 472,528 | 1,421,661 |
| Vermont, - - - - - | 314,120 | — | 314,120 |
| Wisconsin, - - - - - | 305,391 | — | 305,391 |
| | 19,866,662 | 3,200,600 | 23,067,262 |

| Territories. | Free. | Slave. | Total. |
|---------------------------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| New Mexico, - - - - - | 61,547 | — | 61,547 |
| Utah, - - - - - | 11,354 | 26 | 11,380 |
| District of Columbia, - - - - - | 48,000 | 3,637 | 51,637 |
| | 19,937,563 | 3,204,313 | 23,191,876 |

CENSUS OF 1860.

| States. | Free. | Slave. | Total. |
|---------------------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| Alabama, - - - - - | 529,164 | 435,132 | 964,296 |
| Arkansas, - - - - - | 324,323 | 111,104 | 435,427 |
| California, - - - - - | 380,015 | — | 380,015 |
| Connecticut, - - - - - | 460,151 | — | 460,151 |
| Delaware, - - - - - | 110,420 | 1,798 | 112,218 |
| Florida, - - - - - | 78,686 | 61,753 | 140,439 |
| Georgia, - - - - - | 595,097 | 462,230 | 1,057,327 |
| Illinois, - - - - - | 1,711,753 | — | 1,711,753 |
| Indiana, - - - - - | 1,350,479 | — | 1,350,479 |
| Iowa, - - - - - | 674,948 | — | 674,948 |
| Kansas, - - - - - | 107,110 | — | 107,110 |
| Kentucky, - - - - - | 930,223 | 225,490 | 1,155,713 |
| Louisiana, - - - - - | 376,913 | 332,520 | 709,433 |
| Maine, - - - - - | 628,276 | — | 628,276 |
| Maryland, - - - - - | 599,846 | 87,188 | 687,034 |
| Massachusetts, - - - - - | 1,231,065 | — | 1,231,065 |
| Mississippi, - - - - - | 354,699 | 436,696 | 791,395 |
| Missouri, - - - - - | 1,058,352 | 114,965 | 1,173,317 |
| Michigan, - - - - - | 749,112 | — | 749,112 |
| Minnesota, - - - - - | 162,022 | — | 162,022 |
| New Hampshire, - - - - - | 326,072 | — | 326,072 |
| New Jersey, - - - - - | 672,031 | — | 672,031 |
| New York, - - - - - | 3,887,542 | — | 3,887,542 |
| North Carolina, - - - - - | 661,586 | 331,081 | 992,667 |
| Ohio, - - - - - | 2,339,599 | — | 2,339,599 |
| Oregon, - - - - - | 52,466 | — | 52,466 |
| Pennsylvania, - - - - - | 2,906,370 | — | 2,906,370 |
| Rhode Island, - - - - - | 174,631 | — | 174,631 |
| South Carolina, - - - - - | 301,271 | 402,541 | 703,812 |
| Tennessee, - - - - - | 834,063 | 275,784 | 1,109,847 |
| Texas, - - - - - | 420,651 | 180,388 | 601,039 |
| Virginia, - - - - - | 1,105,196 | 490,887 | 1,596,083 |
| Vermont, - - - - - | 315,116 | — | 315,116 |
| Wisconsin, - - - - - | 775,873 | — | 775,873 |
| | 27,185,109 | 3,949,557 | 31,134,666 |

| Territories. | Free. | Slave. | Total. |
|---------------------------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| Colorado, - - - - - | 34,197 | — | 34,197 |
| Dakotah, - - - - - | 4,839 | — | 4,839 |
| Nebraska, - - - - - | 28,822 | 10 | 28,842 |
| Nevada, - - - - - | 6,857 | — | 6,857 |
| New Mexico, - - - - - | 93,517 | 24 | 93,541 |
| Utah, - - - - - | 40,266 | 29 | 40,295 |
| Washington, - - - - - | 11,578 | — | 11,578 |
| District of Columbia, - - - - - | 71,895 | 3,181 | 75,076 |
| | 27,477,000 | 3,952,801 | 31,429,891 |

The following table shows the number of members of Congress apportioned to each State in 1850 and in 1860. In 1860, the ratio of representation was 127,216.

| 1850. 1860. | | | | 1850. 1860. | | | |
|-------------------------|----|----|--|-------------------------------|----|----|--|
| Maine, - - - - | 6 | 5 | | Mississippi, - - - - | 5 | 5 | |
| New Hampshire, - - - - | 3 | 3 | | Louisiana, - - - - | 4 | 4 | |
| Vermont, - - - - | 3 | 3 | | Arkansas, - - - - | 2 | 3 | |
| Massachusetts, - - - - | 11 | 10 | | Texas, - - - - | 2 | 4 | |
| Rhode Island, - - - - | 2 | 1 | | Tennessee, - - - - | 10 | 8 | |
| Connecticut, - - - - | 4 | 4 | | Kentucky, - - - - | 10 | 8 | |
| New York, - - - - | 33 | 30 | | Ohio, - - - - | 21 | 19 | |
| New Jersey, - - - - | 5 | 5 | | Indiana, - - - - | 11 | 11 | |
| Pennsylvania, - - - - | 25 | 23 | | Illinois, - - - - | 9 | 13 | |
| Delaware, - - - - | 1 | 1 | | Missouri, - - - - | 7 | 9 | |
| Maryland, - - - - | 6 | 6 | | Michigan, - - - - | 4 | 6 | |
| Virginia, - - - - | 13 | 11 | | Wisconsin, - - - - | 3 | 6 | |
| North Carolina, - - - - | 8 | 7 | | Iowa, - - - - | 2 | 5 | |
| South Carolina, - - - - | 6 | 4 | | Minnesota, - - - - | 2 | 1 | |
| Georgia, - - - - | 8 | 7 | | Oregon, - - - - | 1 | 1 | |
| Florida, - - - - | 1 | 1 | | California, - - - - | 2 | 3 | |
| Alabama, - - - - | 7 | 6 | | | | | |
| Total, - - - - | | | | For 1850, 237. For 1860, 233. | | | |

The following tables show the increase of population in 1860, in the different States, over the population of 1850:

| FREE STATES. | | SLAVE STATES. | |
|------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|-----------|
| | Increase. | | Increase. |
| Maine, - - - - | 36,780 | Delaware, - - - - | 20,821 |
| New Hampshire, - - - - | 8,096 | Maryland, - - - - | 148,531 |
| Vermont, - - - - | 1,707 | Virginia, - - - - | 171,538 |
| Massachusetts, - - - - | 236,980 | North Carolina, - - - - | 139,303 |
| Rhode Island, - - - - | 27,079 | South Carolina, - - - - | 46,864 |
| Connecticut, - - - - | 89,098 | Georgia, - - - - | 176,642 |
| New York, - - - - | 754,169 | Florida, - - - - | 58,249 |
| Pennsylvania, - - - - | 604,232 | Alabama, - - - - | 184,294 |
| New Jersey, - - - - | 186,479 | Mississippi, - - - - | 280,132 |
| Ohio, - - - - | 397,588 | Louisiana, - - - - | 148,669 |
| Indiana, - - - - | 362,386 | Arkansas, - - - - | 230,878 |
| Illinois, - - - - | 839,768 | Texas, - - - - | 438,363 |
| Michigan, - - - - | 356,737 | Tennessee, - - - - | 133,973 |
| Wisconsin, - - - - | 458,094 | Kentucky, - - - - | 168,152 |
| Iowa, - - - - | 489,788 | Missouri, - - - - | 519,170 |
| Minnesota, - - - - | 166,719 | | |
| Oregon, - - - - | 39,272 | | |
| California, - - - - | 292,173 | | |
| Total, - - - - | 5,347,651 | Total, - - - - | 2,820,539 |

The following tables show the Free and the Slave population at each decennial period since the first census was taken:

| SLAVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES. | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|
| | | | Increase. |
| 1790, - - - - | 697,897 | | |
| 1800, - - - - | 893,041 | 195,144, or 29 per cent. | |
| 1810, - - - - | 1,191,364 | 298,323, or 33 " | |
| 1820, - - - - | 1,538,064 | 347,700, or 30 " | |
| 1830, - - - - | 2,009,031 | 470,967, or 30 " | |
| 1840, - - - - | 2,487,355 | 478,324, or 24 " | |
| 1850, - - - - | 3,204,313 | 716,958, or 29 " | |
| 1860, - - - - | 3,999,353 | 795,040, or 25 " | |

FREE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES

| | | |
|-----------------|------------|---------------------------|
| 1790, - - - - - | 3,231,075 | Increase. |
| 1800, - - - - - | 4,412,911 | 1,180,036, or 36 per cent |
| 1810, - - - - - | 6,048,450 | 1,635,530, or 37 " |
| 1820, - - - - - | 8,100,067 | 2,051,517, or 33 " |
| 1830, - - - - - | 10,357,880 | 2,757,822, or 33 " |
| 1840, - - - - - | 14,575,998 | 3,718,109, or 33 " |
| 1850, - - - - - | 19,991,645 | 5,415,616, or 37 " |
| 1860, - - - - - | 27,642,624 | 7,550,680, or 38 " |

The following table shows the total population of the United States at each decennial period:

| | | | |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------------|------------|
| 1790, - - - - - | 3,929,827 | 1830, - - - - - | 12,886,020 |
| 1800, - - - - - | 5,305,925 | 1840, - - - - - | 17,069,453 |
| 1810, - - - - - | 7,239,814 | 1850, - - - - - | 23,191,876 |
| 1820, - - - - - | 9,638,131 | 1860, - - - - - | 31,429,891 |

The increase of the free population of the United States has averaged, at each decade, for the last half century, about 35 per cent; the increase of the slave population about 27 per cent. Estimating the increase of each kind of population at these figures for the half century to come, the results at each decade in round numbers, are as follows:

| | Free. | Slave. | Total. |
|-----------------|-------------|------------|-------------|
| 1870, - - - - - | 37,000,000 | 5,000,000 | 42,000,000 |
| 1880, - - - - - | 50,000,000 | 6,500,000 | 56,500,000 |
| 1890, - - - - - | 68,000,000 | 8,000,000 | 76,000,000 |
| 1900, - - - - - | 92,000,000 | 10,000,000 | 102,000,000 |
| 1910, - - - - - | 123,000,000 | 12,500,000 | 135,500,000 |

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